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EDUCATION

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FRANK HERBERT PALMER, EDITOR

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EDUCATION

Devoted to the Science, Art, Philosophy and Literature of Education

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Some Economic Facts in the Development of Manufacturing in the United States.

MALCOLM KEIR, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF INDUSTRIES, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

STRIKES or lockouts, frantic appeals for labor, explosions in munition plants, fires, marvelous inventions, astounding records of production, all these thrust upon the attention of modern Americans the vital importance of our factories. When we travel we are amazed at the rapid construction of gigantic new mills, we are deafened by the roar of furnaces, appalled by the crash of hammers and our passage blocked by hurrying motor trucks burdened with raw materials or piled high with finished products. Through all our senses, it is borne in upon us that we belong to a manufacturing nation. It startles us, therefore, to realize that this activity is comparatively new in our national development; it is a shock for it to be brought home to us that throughout all the colonial period of our history, there was little manufacturing of any kind within our borders. We are slow to believe that until 1830 only cotton and iron manufacture made much progress in our country, and that even when the Civil War opened, we had but barely removed the heavy handicaps under which manufacturing labored. Hence it is only since 1870 that we have really discovered our great resources for manufacturing, and have begun to utilize them to our advantage. Manufacturing then, is a new feature in our economic life. How it has been brought from obscurity to such prominence is the question we now face.

In the colonial era, manufacturing was hindered by both natural and artificial barriers; in fact the difficulties were so many that it is astonishing that the colonies were so persistent in their efforts to set this industry upon its feet.

The overwhelming pre-eminence of agriculture was the foremost disadvantage at that time facing an enterprising man who endeavored to start manufacturing. In a new country, whose soil and climate permit, the first activity to which men turn their attention is farming. They must eat to live; they must farm for food. Hence this primary need of human beings is always reflected in the primacy of agriculture among all industries. In America, this natural predilection toward farming was heightened by the fact that the middle and southern colonies produced commodities for which they had either an exclusive monopoly or for which an excellent foreign market existed. Tobacco was an American plant, and Virginia with her neighbors had a virtual world monopoly in its cultivation. The profits in the business were so great that Virginians refused to consider any other form of industry. Living in a wooded country, they imported all their wooden ware; even birch brooms came from abroad. Pennsylvania and Delaware were the grain growing and flour milling communities. The West Indies plantations eagerly took the surplus of grain or flour, thus constituting a valuable market near at hand. New York was similar to Pennsylvania, while New Jersey was a grazing cattle feeding settlement. The West Indies and New England constituted ready markets for the grain or meat collected at New York. Consequently in all the colonies south of the Hudson, strong incentives were held before a man to devote his energies to farming. Land was cheap, the virgin soil was fertile, and a market was ready to absorb what was produced. It paid to ship raw materials and with them purchase manufactures from Europe. The commanding position of agriculture, therefore, held manufacturing in abeyance.

The poor showing of colonial manufacturing, however, was not entirely due to men's prejudice in favor of land tillage. Manufacturing had to struggle against a shortage of labor, a lack of capital, an absence of market and exhorbitant transportation

charges. Added to all these natural limitations upon manufacturing was the English policy of prohibitions to any activity that threatened her own home workmen.

In a country so sparsely settled, yet so extensive in area as America, it was natural that labor would be scarce. Land was to be had for the taking, so why should any man work for another? As a consequence, wages were very high. Farmers could afford high wages because there was no capital outlay for land, hence no interest charges; there were no tithes and taxes were low. On the other hand, the land gave a large increase and the market absorbed all that was grown. Yet even farmers had trouble securing permanent labor and had to resort to importing convicts, indentured servants or slaves. If farmers in a superior situation could not secure labor, how much more of a handicap was it to manufacturers in an inferior natural position. It costs so much to train workers that manufacturers must have a permanent labor force, yet in America the high wages paid, plus the cheapness of living, enabled wage-workers to set up for themselves as proprietors of land in a very short time. Hence a manufacturer's force was always a succession of learners. This condition operated forcibly in restricting manufacturing enterprises.

Furthermore the labor was not collected in masses in towns or cities but spread out thinly over a wide area. This was particularly true in the southern colonies where the type of agriculture demanded large land holdings but did not call for town facilities because each plantation owner sold his own produce over his own wharves. Even at the opening of the Revolution, there were only three million people in the colonies and these few were scattered all the way from Maine to Georgia. The result of this wide dispersal of labor, together with its high price, effectively checked any tendency toward manufacturing.

Abundance of capital is just as essential to manufacturing enterprises as an ample supply of labor. Just as the newness of America made labor well nigh non-available, so also the recent origin of the colonies created a dearth of fluctuating capital. It is not true that there was an absolute lack of capital in the colonies, but it is a fact that whatever capital was present, constantly as-

sumed fixed forms. It went into buildings, cattle, work-animals, or tools and left but little free to conduct a going business. Hence manufacturing might start, but it could not borrow capital for running expenses or for expansion. What small amount of capital was available, constantly tended to flow abroad to pay for imports. The result of these facts in respect to capital is shown in the statement that in 1781 there were but three banks in America, one at Philadelphia, one at New York and a third at Boston.

A lack of free capital might have been met by a system of long term credits. But in a country so new, where capital was in such demand for establishing homes and farms, it was compulsory to make a small amount do a large aggregate of work. In short, the turnover of capital had to be large and quick. Hence long term credits were unknown to American capitalists. Without labor, without free capital and without credit, maufacturing could make but little headway in the colonial era. There was so little private enterprise that at the time of the Revolution, the Congress was forced to erect and operate the little forges and furnaces that furnished munitions of war.

Even if there had been an adequate labor force and a supply of capital, still there would have been little manufacturing in colonial America because of the absence of market. Our industry was still on the household basis. Each homestead produced its own raw materials, manufactured its own necessities and consumed its own products. There was no need or desire to leave the home place in order to satisfy men's wants. Furthermore, workers here were not paid in money, whereas in England that system was compelled by law. In this country artisans were rewarded in kind. Just as in Biblical times, Abraham gave Joseph a percentage of the increase in the flocks, so in America the miller took his toll in grain, the spinner in yarn and the cobbler in food, leather or agricultural products. The lack of money, then, operated against extensive exchanges at a distance. Trade was by barter between individuals. These two facts—the economic independence of farmers and the absence of money wages—practically eliminated any general market. Hence a manufacturer was strictly limited to his own neigh-

borhood and even there was put to much inconvenience to dispose of his wares.

This feature of American colonial manufacturing was heightened by the difficulty of transportation; distant overland journeys were impossible because the country was almost impassable, a well nigh trackless forest. The only means of easy communication was by water. Any place available to American manufacturers by water was equally accessible to European producers and since the people preferred the better made, better finished European goods, American wares could not compete. Hence markets were limited by distance or by navigable streams. In other words, the difficulty of transportation prohibited the expansion of American manufactures.

Colonial ventures in this field of endeavor, therefore, were limited by the lack of labor, capital, market and transportation. In addition they were throttled by English law.

England's policy toward her colonies was to encourage them to produce raw materials which when shipped to England were to be exchanged for English manufactures. In other words, England looked upon her colonies in the light of plantations to be regulated for her own benefit. It is easily perceived then, that the home country would frown upon all attempts of the colonies to make themselves independent, economically. Thus, when in 1731, the hat industry of America gave evidence of superseding hats of English manufacture, the English makers immediately petitioned Parliament for relief from this untoward competition. Despite the fact that the raw material—fur—was abundant and cheap in this country and that fully ten thousand persons were actively engaged in the business in New York and New England, nevertheless, Parliament listened to the appeals of the English hatters, and in 1732, prohibited the manufacture of hats in the colonies. Likewise when the iron industry of England was on the decline because the forests that supplied charcoal fuel were exhausted, the colonists were exhorted to erect furnaces in order to supply England with pig iron. At the same time*[1] the settlers were forbidden to fashion the pig iron into any finished form whatsoever. Later when

* 1719-1739 and 1750.

a substitute for charcoal was found by distilling soft coal into coke, an edict was issued against colonial manufacture of pig iron.

Again in 1744, England invoked the majesty of the law to strangle American competition by declaring it a misdemeanor to ship the new marvelous textile machinery out of England. This law was strengthened at subsequent times to include the parts of machines or even plans. In short, England was at a more advanced economic stage of development than her colonies and she intended that the gap should never be lessened.

This policy nipped in the bud, all those incipient manufacturers that showed any likelihood of success in competition against England herself. Consequently, even if all other factors had been favorable for the development of manufactures in America, it is little likely that ventures of that sort would have survived the cold disapproval of English merchants or the harsh rigor of English law. This English attitude, therefore, added to the dominance of agriculture and the lack of labor, capital, market and transportation facilities, made it impossible for manufacturing to gain headway in the colonies.

What little manufacturing resisted these various shocks, was almost entirely local in character. It derived its raw materials from near at hand; it transformed those materials into usable goods in the same place; and it sold the finished product in the immediate locality. The whole cycle of activities from crude stock to final form was carried on in the same area.

All such local industries had several common features. They dealt in articles too cheap or too bulky in proportion to their value to warrant importation. Furthermore, the manufacturing processes were simple, without much organization or subdivision of labor; consequently little capital was required. Finally the commodities made were those that were in universal demand. For example, nearly every community boasted three mills, one for lumber, another for flour and a third for finishing wool cloth. In small villages, it was frequently true that all three were housed in one structure, not because of any similarity in process but for the reason that no one of them could keep the little water power equipment busy all the time. By combining each of the three, they

were able to reduce the expenses of the building and power by sharing it with the others. If the saw mill for illustration, were by itself, it would have the entire expense to pay whether the mill operated two days a week or six; but if it were housed with a flour mill and fulling mill, each would bear a third of the charges. The common need for power brought these three industries together upon the same stream or neighboring brooks, even if economy did not dictate that they be found under the same roof.

Besides the three types of manufacturing just indicated, there were others that were frequently encountered in colonial America. Prominent among these was the local manufacture of iron for which the raw materials and the need for the products was everywhere present. The tanning of leather was another common local industry because the hard wood forests supplied the tannic acid and each farmer furnished the hides. Based upon the local supply of leather, shoemaking was a widespread activity. Textile materials—flax or wool—were spun into yarn in almost every household and woven into cloth by members of the family or by itinerant weavers. In many places, too, the burning of wood into potash or its refined form of pearlash was an ordinary practice. These local manufactures, then, were the only examples of manufacturing enterprises to be found in the colonies.

To this broad generalization, there was one outstanding exception. In New England, particularly Massachusetts, several other branches of manufacturing were of importance. In fact New England was the seat of manufactures for all the Atlantic colonies.

New England was unlike her sister colonies in many respects. She could not support herself by agriculture alone and consequently had no agricultural surplus to export. She had no other raw material that England wanted except white pine for ship masts. There was no basis for trade, therefore, between the mother country and her American namesake. New England as a result sought for wealth by methods that were not necessary anywhere else in America. Denied sustenance from the soil, she found succor from the sea. The best fishing grounds in the world were near her coasts so New England gained fame for her fleets and not for her farms. The outgrowth of the fishing industry was the rise

of commerce and shipbuilding as New England's sources of livelihood. These two enterprises were responsible for giving to New England many manufacturing ventures, that were almost unknown elsewhere in America. Most of the manufactures originated from one of two causes; either they supplied materials needed for shipping or else they put into finished form raw materials brought home to America by returning merchantmen.

In the first group fell all those manufactures that outfitted ships for their voyages. The iron industry was one of these, furnishing nails, bells, cannon, shot and anchors, and it is significant that Massachusetts led all the other colonies in iron manufacture for a hundred years after 1650. Besides iron, rope was a requisite for ships. The first rope walk was set up at Boston in 1641 and soon all the ports followed Boston's lead. As a reflex of this early industry, one of the largest rope plants in the United States today is located at Plymouth, not far from the famous Rock. Not only iron and rope but food products also were needed by every outgoing vessel. Flour mills, biscuit makers and salt meat packers were therefore common sights in every great shipping town. It is interesting, too, to discover that the present day ready made clothing industry has grown out of tailor shops that faced the docks and made suits for sailors.

In this same group should be placed the big cooperage industry. Every principal article of commerce was transported in hogsheads or barrels. Flour, biscuits, meat, rum, sugar, molasses, oil and naval stores all required similar containers. Cheap wood of high quality gave New England an advantage in cooperage not enjoyed by her foreign competitors; indeed it was estimated that our merchants could count the cheapness of their barrels as at least an extra fifteen per cent profit. Our fortunate position was so pronounced that hogsheads and staves were themselves articles of commerce, especially to the West Indies, where they were needed for sugar, molasses and rum.

Contrasted with these industries which supplied outbound boats were others that were supported by raw materials brought home by incoming vessels. Prominent among such manufacturing was refining.

Crude sugar was carried from the West Indies to New England and there refined for our domestic market. Likewise, molasses was distilled into rum. At that time rum was an especially valuable product in demand by farmers and sailors alike. It was as customary an article of a ship's stores as the sailors' biscuit and salt pork; in fact is was usual to allow for the operating sxpenses of a ship, ninety-five to two hundred and seventy-five dollars a trip for rum, or as much as was allotted for bread.

Another distilling industry was that founded on whaling and other fishing. Oil was obtained that for scores of years was the only source of lubricants and illuminants. These distilleries were upon Massachusetts Bay.

The great fishing industry called for large quantities of salt for preserving fish when caught as well as for preparing food for sailors. Hence the refining of salt from sea water was a common practice.

Not only raw materials for distillers and refiners were in the holds of returning ships but also hides collected from foreign ports scattered all the way from Cape Horn to San Francisco and many Pacific Islands in addition. These hides were tanned near Boston and manufactured into shoes at Lynn. Although shoemaking was a local industry in all the colonies, nevertheless Lynn soon was the leader in this industry, and still is, even at the present time.

The fishing and commerce of New England, therefore, were responsible for the early trend toward manufacturing in that section of the country. These manufactures either supplied ships with necessities or else worked into a finished state, materials that the boats brought to our shores. New England, therefore, differed from the other colonies. These manufactures marked her as an incipient industrial region, whereas in the other colonies there was little indication of any future manufactures save what little may have been promised by the local industries.

Then came the Revolutionary War, ushering in a new era, with different conditions from those of the colonial period. The first direct effect of the war was a marked stimulation of domestic manufactures. It may be stated as a general truth that whatever interferes with or interrupts commerce produces an immediate

incentive for home manufactures. War embargoes and high tariffs are alike in this respect; they interfere with trade between nations and just so far as their opposition is competently operative, by just so much do they encourage home enterprises. During the Revolution, as a consequence, the American market so long dependent upon foreign manufacturers, was suddenly thrown upon its own resources. Imports were shut off, with the result that commodities customarily imported increased in price. On the other hand, raw materials usually sent abroad were likewise cut off at the docks and thrown back to American consumers. Therefore raw materials were cheapened. With high prices for finished products and low prices for the crude stock, an alluring profit was held before American enterprise; in immediate response manufacturing was greatly increased.

But this manufacturing endured only as long as the war which produced it. When the war was finished, a flood of British goods entered our markets and almost completely prostrated our young industries. The British had all the advantages of low wages, permanent working classes, great subdivision of labor and relatively large scale production. Moreover England had a monopoly upon technical improvements in both textile manufacture and iron production. In textiles, the spinning jenny, the spinning mule, the application of steam power to spinning, power looms, cylinder printing and chrome bleaching, all these were English inventions and had been introduced in England's factories exclusively; in truth they were the direct cause for the introduction of the factory system in place of the former home work. In iron and steel manufacture, the use of coke, Cort's puddling furnace and Cort's grooved rolls were again English inventions. England kept these inventions for herself by imposing fines and imprisonment upon any one attempting to carry them from the country in the forms of machines, parts, plans or even the persons of skilled artisans.

Against this array of benefits belonging to Britain, the Americans could set the distance that separated English producers from American consumers. Freight rates acted as a tariff in favor of Americans. In addition the Americans were blessed with low taxes and low priced materials. In the long run these advantages

counted against the British after we had smuggled, stolen or invented machinery to offset the British advantage in this respect, but at first with all the goods on hand accumulated during the war, the British were able to sweep our market.

In addition to the superiority of the British position, the Americans had to face a chaotic political situation at home. Every state levied import and export duties upon goods entering or leaving its bounds; hence manufactures were confined to their own state for a market. So our young manufacturing enterprises swayed, tottered and almost crashed into complete ruin, but the situation was soon relieved by the international upheavals wrought by Napoleon.

These had the effect of shutting off continental competition for England and gave her free reign to develop her own industries. Since she had the European markets, England was less concerned with the American. At the same time American commerce profited amazingly by the struggles abroad and brought to Americans much capital that they sought to reinvest. Much of it went into the enlargement of shipping facilities but some was diverted to the support of manufactures. This tendency was greatly increased by the Embargo (1807) and Non-intercourse (1809) Acts which shut off foreign importations as well as completely tying up our own vessels. Merchants withdrew their money from commercial ventures and put it into factories for which the exclusion of foreign made goods gave an excellent opportunity to succeed. The War of 1812 following soon afterwards was the final factor favoring new manufacturing projects.

(*To be concluded in EDUCATION for April.*)

The Foreign Child and the Teacher

MARY GOVE SMITH, SOUTH HADLEY, MASS.

IN the last fifteen or twenty years, perhaps no two terms have been used more readily than those two hard-worked catch-words "Americanization" and "Democracy." A dozen years ago the shout for "Americanization" won loudest applause. But with the war and our actual participation in it, the emphasis has shifted until "Democratize" rather than "Americanize" has become the popular slogan.

America, it is true, is far from attaining the democratic ideal, yet there are men and women of achievement and vision who believe that in her future lies the hope of the world. Such a belief implies a program, if not a platform, and for the carrying out of such a program we look to the public school. If America's ideal is indeed to be the fulfillment of her visions of a great democracy, then it is largely through the channels of popular education that progress must come.

Yet in most of the material which educational magazines and journals have offered in regard to the public school as the great melting-pot, as the one organized and standardized force for Americanism and Democracy, there is a curiously inadequate or even distinctly misleading interpretation of the term Americanization, and a singularly narrow conception of the significance and import of true democracy. "It is mainly among community service workers, city constructionists, men and women in direct social touch with our foreign population, that one finds the lead from which to develop our schools into Americanizing and democratizing centers."

Only a short time ago educators at large barely listened to the few who said that education was the process of producing right-minded, whole-souled citizens. A teacher's duty was within the walls of the schoolroom. The whole room-group, regardless of its widely varied parts, was treated as homogeneous, and individuals were only part of a whole which had to be taken through a certain

curriculum, with each day's routine a repetition of each previous day's routine.

Today, instead, the teacher's work is not only to teach the required subjects, with skill, and imagination, and quick perception of individual needs and capacities, but his work is to awaken and develop the spirit as well as the mind of boys and girls so that they may be capable and desirous of achieving honorable citizenship in a world in which they themselves are zealous to become constructive factors.

The late Professor Munsterberg says that the purpose of education is to make a pupil "willing and able to help in the realization of ideal values."[1] He stresses the obligation of so teaching a child that he becomes not only able, but *willing* to realize ideal purposes and "thus to help in building up a world of eternal values."[2] If education is to help boys and girls to grow to a sense of eternal values, to a realization of ideal purposes, then surely the teacher himself must have knowledge of fundamentals, a sense of values, and spiritual discernment: he must have the capacity for transmitting not only the facts of things, but for imparting the subtler essence of ideas, the finer sense of ideals.

Mr. Wilson has very recently made "plea for a realization in public education of the new emphasis which the war has given to the broader conceptions of our national life."[3] The phrase "broader conceptions of national life" suggests what Americanization means if we are to shape from all our divers elements a great free America. Broad conceptions of national life cannot be achieved without international vision. The creation of a national life signifies the recognition and embodiment of its component parts.

For the discernment of values provincialism in the mind of the teacher must disappear, and standards become cosmopolitan to meet faithful experiences of life no matter how remote or how different these may be. Standards of life are significant only as they express intrinsic and ultimate values.

[1] Munsterberg, Hugo: Psychology and the Teacher, p. 65. (D. Appleton & Co., '09.)

[2] op. cit.

[3] Letter from President Wilson, Aug. 23, 1917, To School Officers: In Announcement of series of Lessons in Community and National Life, in a circular issued by U. S. Bureau of Education, 1917.

As the broad conception of nationalism involves a comprehension of internationalism, so an intelligent guidance of our foreign children into American life and citizenship involves a knowledge and understanding of the nations from which these children emigrate. To open the way "to the heights of their fullest capacity for achievement and service"[4] necessitates a familiarity with their background, with the manners and customs of their people, with the drama, folk-lore, poetry, and history of their countries. The sense of racial tradition prepares a teacher for his direct experience, as knowledge of the child's present environment and daily influences supplements that experience.

Multitudes of alien children, often from primitive conditions, are suddenly transplanted into American public schools, about to face the most recent and complex development of organized industrial machinery. The school must make the present a link between the past and the future in order not to lose any beauty of inheritance, nor forfeit any strength of preparation. Many times the children have illiterate parents, they often come from communities where modern civilization has not entered, but they have an indisputable aptitude for civilization. They respond swiftly and vividly to imaginative appeal. They bring color, imagery, thoughtfulness, gayety, ability for self-expression. These qualities and all the inherent possibilities a teacher should know. His capacity for understanding the lives of his boys and girls in relation to their centuries past, and his ability to conserve from the old civilization its grace and power, mark in large degree his imaginative and creative value in our education toward liberty and democracy.

Especially in the primary and secondary grades we should try to eliminate the false idea of Americanism. Foreign children almost invariably give up within the first six months of life in America standards familiar to them. They adopt instead a wholesale imitation of what they assume to be American. They speedily acquire street slang, they run in gangs, they feel ashamed of courtesy, they boast of ruffianism, they despise their fathers' language, their mothers' dress. They deride children of other nations and

[4]Butler, Nicholas Murray: True and False Democracy, p. 15. (Mem. '07.)

deem worthy of association and imitation only those whom they consider Americans. All this is away from discernment of values, a bound from democracy rather than a step toward it. A teacher can easily help a child to keep a love of his own country while stimulating a new love for his new country. A teacher's real feeling for the different countries his room represents is readily reflected in the feelings of his pupils. Without awareness, instinctively, a child senses and answers to the attitude of mind, to the belief in the heart, of the teacher. The sense of an ideal caught, the acceptance of an idea, becomes an unconscious reserve power, a fund of acknowledged or more often unacknowledged decision and action in the inner nature of the child from which later movement will take place.

As we grow into a democracy, realizing that liberty is the power of the freedom of thought and of individual expression, as we become able to discern values and to distinguish between immediate and ultimate ideals, we will hand the gift of life to all children according to the measure in which we have the spirit and the wisdom to accept the gifts of life from our millions of immigrant children.

The United States Bureau of Education[5] urges that more "attention be devoted to instruction bearing directly on problems of community and national life." History is a present reality. There is pressing need, in the upbuilding of our community and national life, that our immigrants know each other and that we know them all. The beginning of the sympathy which produces unity can best be made in the lower grades of our public schools. We need generously to appreciate that our many-nationed collaborators are assets in the construction of a democratic America. As the lives of teachers are enriched and amplified by insight into the histories of the various countries which are contributing to the development of our national life, so the burden of their teaching is lessened and the inspiration of their teaching heightened.

[5]Announcement of a series of Lessons in Community and National Life in a circular issued by the Bureau of Education, 1917. (In a letter from President Wilson, Aug. 23, 1917: To School Officers.)

The Deaf and Psychic Development.*

RICHARD O. JOHNSON, SUPERINTENDENT INDIANA SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

DEAFNESS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS, AND ADENOID GROWTH.

IT may be stated generally that most ear diseases (72 per cent) are caused by affections of the naso-pharynx and that perfect hearing depends largely upon free ventilation of the tympanic, or middle ear, cavity, which is provided for by nature through the eustachian tube. This middle ear affection may be of suppurative or non-suppurative process. Deafness may be due to impacted cerumen, foreign bodies and miscellaneous causes in the external ear (3 per cent), or to affections of the labyrinth, auditory nerve, brain center or miscellaneous causes in the internal ear (25 per cent). It is believed by some that there is direct relationship between the ear and certain forms of epilepsy, gastroenteritis, and other diseases that are supposed to have their origin elsewhere, but which are caused by pent-up secretions of the middle ear. Chronic aural suppuration is often symptomless so far as the ear is concerned, and the experience of Ponfick,[1] of Breslau, has been cited as corroborative of this condition. In the examination of the middle ears of 100 consecutive cases of infants dead under three years of age, and of whom only nine had exhibited rupture of the membranes or other external symptom of ear disease, he found 169 diseased tympana, 77 ambilateral and 15 unilateral. Another authority[2] reports that in 133 autopsies on nursing infants there were found only five cases in which the middle ear was free from exudation. Many of these 233 cases, no doubt, would have become deaf, and deafmutes, had they not died, as have thousands of others similarly affected who have lived.

The prevalence of defective hearing among pupils attending the public schools is far greater than is known and investigations in

* Concluded from February EDUCATION.

Note: In the 14th line on page 425 of February EDUCATION for "recognized" deficiency read "recognized or unrecognized."

[1]Professor of Pathology.

[2]Simmons-Archives of Otology.

various parts of the country have disclosed from ten to thirty per cent of the number examined as having defective hearing. One report,[3] which may be taken as fairly representative of the condition, states that investigations in many places tend to establish the following points: (1) that at least one child in every five has some defect in one or both ears: (2) that in the majority of cases neither teacher, parent nor child is aware of the defect; (3) that these children, usually accounted careless, inattentive, or positively stupid by parents and teachers who are ignorant of the real cause, become "repeaters" of grades and, as they grow in age and stature, are assigned to rear seats in the schoolroom where their chances of hearing are reduced to a minimum; (4) that a child who is hard of hearing can hear better at certain times than at others, which causes misjudgment, and the common remark, "Don't tell me that Jimmie is deaf, he can hear as well as anybody when he wants to." Can any one doubt that such children, unless placed under the care of a skilled specialist (the few) or under special training in a school for the deaf (the many) are left behind in the race and, discouraged, become indifferent and acquire a tendency down the scale to delinquency and perhaps, depravity?

Another great fact brought out by investigations is the very rapid increase of defective sight and hearing in the early school years of the child, which culminates around the ninth or tenth year, a remarkable time in the life of the child for at this period the brain has about reached its full weight and in its development is changing from increase in size to increase in function, while at the same time there comes sudden growth, increased strain upon the heart, and consequent fatigue.

How important, then, that parents and teachers should make and have made by the family physician, careful examination of the pharynx and naso-pharynx, of the membrana tympani, and for middle ear inflammation—that there should be correct diagnosis and prompt and efficient treatment by means of excision of enlarged faucial and pharyngeal tonsils, and incision of the membrane for proper exudation if inflammation be found, in all diseases of infancy and childhood. Proper attention and treatment will probably save the child's life and preserve wholly, or in some degree, its

[3]Southworth-Somerville Schools.

hearing and speech, for it is a fact that a child losing its hearing under seven years of age will almost surely lose its acquired speech unless strenuous efforts be made to retain it upon the part of the child, the parent, and the teacher.

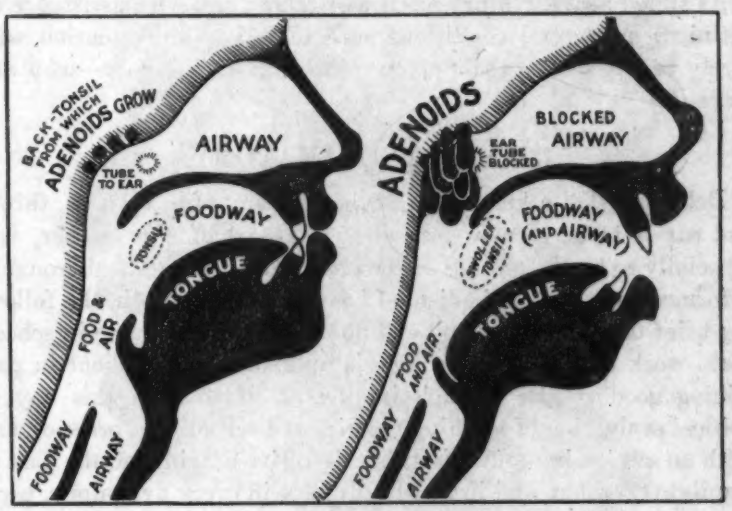
THE COMMON ADENOID

In appealing to parents and teachers for constant and effective watchfulness generally in certain exanthematous and inflammatory diseases that always tend to affect the hearing (catarrhal affections, scarletina, meningitis, measles, mumps, colds, etc.), and without consideration of hereditary and adventitious causes of deafness, their classification and rate of frequency, etc., the various phases of which cannot well be considered within the scope of this article, there is one very common cause of deafness to which I wish to refer specifically, i. e., the occlusion, or closure, by means of adenoid growth, a glandular blood-filled mass, of the eustachian tube leading from the naso-pharynx to the tympanic cavity and through which is afforded the *only means for absolutely necessary ventilation of the middle ear.* The occlusion by adenoids of this tube, which is about one and one-half inches long and barely large enough in diameter at its middle part to pass a darning needle, is the primary cause of a very large percentage of cases of defective hearing: and with inflammation of the tube through disease, the two probably constitute a decided majority of all cases of adventitious deafness where not due to hereditary disposition which is certainly transmissible and susceptible of development through the action of causes not affecting one free of such disposition. Constant watchfulness and care will frequently overcome such a condition; *nature needs assistance.*

This adenoid growth, so baneful, so common in children and so prevalent everywhere, is easy of detection and easy of remedy if one has but eye to see and thought to act *before it is too late;* but delay usually occurs, or nothing is done at all with mistaken belief that it will finally disappear—as it does in later years, but not until almost irremediable damage has been done. While the growth is in the post-nasal space above the uvula and cannot be seen, it is indicated by one or more unmistakable symptoms: hypertrophied faucial tonsils, cough, croup, tonsilitis, asthma, epileptic seizures, repeated colds in

the head, intermittent spells of deafness and of ear ache, difficult breathing and deglutition, mouth-breathing, irregular and protruding teeth, high-arched palate, swollen neck-glands, discharges from nose and ear, frequent periods of malaise, and various other troubles frequently attributed to digestive disorders, etc.

The accompanying cut illustrates plainly the pernicious effects of adenoid growth. The face to the left is the normal face showing the natural back, or pharyngeal, tonsil from which the adenoid mass grows in pendant form around, and sometimes into, the eustachian,



NORMAL AND ADENOID FACES.

or ventilating, tube to the middle ear as shown in the face to the right, the so-called adenoid face. In the one, the natural air-way through the nostrils is wide, the roof of the mouth is properly arched, the teeth are straight, and the mouth is closed; in the other, the air-way through the nostrils is blocked so that breathing must be done through the mouth, or food-way, which remains open for air, the faucial tonsil is swollen exerting pressure upon the uvula, and gradual transformation has taken place in the structure of the face, mouth and teeth interfering with correct articulation among other things. Deafness of total or less degree may also be

present—and generally it occurs. It has been said that adenoids and tonsilar enlargement unattended to will result in disease, deafness and impaired growth, both physical and mental, and in the lack of moral stamina. "There is no condition or diathesis or disease which can abort the good, distort the beautiful and prostitute the useful like the neglect of the adenoid condition; there is no medical or surgical transaction which will call forth more expression of gratitude and praise for the physician than this operation of tonsilotomy when successfully performed."

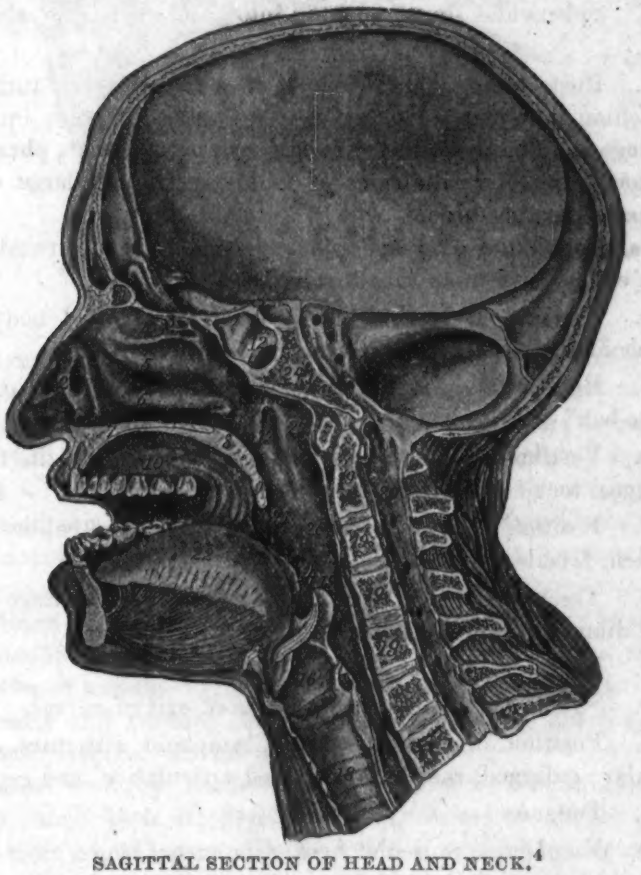
As stated above, Nature needs assistance; and with assistance as outlined, many evil conditions sure to follow non-attention will surely be avoided. *An effort is decidedly worth while—why not make it?*

DESCRIPTIVE ANATOMY.

Believing that a knowledge of the anatomy of head, nose, throat and ear is to be greatly desired on the part of any teacher, and especially so by the teacher of the deaf who wishes to be thoroughly informed as to the mechanism of hearing and of speech, the following brief descriptive outline will no doubt prove of value in schoolroom work with the teacher who is up-to-date and efficient in producing good results through intelligent efforts. In this day of critical evaluation of teaching theories and schoolroom practice, and with an awakening to the fact that defective hearing, on the part of pupils everywhere and in all schools (one in every five pupils, probably), is producing long lines of lost interest, retardation, inefficiency and delinquency, an intimate knowledge of the why and wherefor of things is absolutely necessary. The "hit-or-miss" pattern of educational efforts must be relegated to the period of "Have beens"—it has no place of standing today. Science, knowledge and precision must replace conjecture, opinion and chance.

1. Frontal sinus; opening into nasal chambers; absent in child.
2. Lateral cartilages of nose; 2 upper, 2 lower; fifth cartilage, of septum, not shown.
3. Fourth turbinate; not constant; present in one-third of all cases.
4. Superior turbinate; smallest and least rolled.

5. Middle turbinate; anterior free margin dividing line between olfactory area and respiratory region.
6. Inferior turbinate; longest and largest.
7. Hard palate; bony portion of roof of mouth.



SAGITTAL SECTION OF HEAD AND NECK.[4]

8. Soft palate; movable partition between mouth, nasal cavities and throat; raised in pure vowel sounds; impeded movement results in poor enunciation.
9. Uvula; usual length rarely over 3/8 inch; elongation and relaxation occurs in 90 per cent. of affections of soft palate and uvula, exercising injurious effects on voice.

[4]Courtesy, Saunders & Co., Philadelphia.

10. Arch of roof of mouth; high or irregular arch caused by adenoids and mouth breathing, affecting voice and causing irregular teeth.

11. Anterior ethmoidal cells; opening into nasal chambers.

12. Sphenoidal sinus; opening into nasal chambers; absent in child.

13. Eustachian orifice; about ⅜ inch from inferior turbinate; eustachian tube about 1½ inches long; outer 1-3 bone, inner 2-3 cartilage and fibrous tissue; tympanic opening 1½ inch, pharyngeal 1-3 inch, diameter; diameter of middle part only large enough to pass a darning needle.

13a. Position of pharyngeal tonsil—adenoid tissue; tubal tonsil, when orifice eustachian tube involved.

14. Position of lingual tonsil; slightly elevated nodules of lymphoid tissue on base of tongue.

15. Epiglottis; thin, pliable, leaf-shape cartilage covering "voice-box" or larynx.

16. Vestibule of larynx; in male 1-3 larger than in female; laryngeal tonsil within ventricle of larynx.

17. Position of vocal cords; variable length and calibre; ½ to ¾ inch, female and male.

18. Trachea, showing rings; 16 to 20 rings of cartilage; transverse diameter ¾ to 1 inch.

19. Bodies of cervical vertebræ.

20. Spinal canal, showing foramina of exit of nerves.

21. Position of faucial tonsil; lymphoid structure, highly vascular; enlarged, results in impaired articulation, and especially

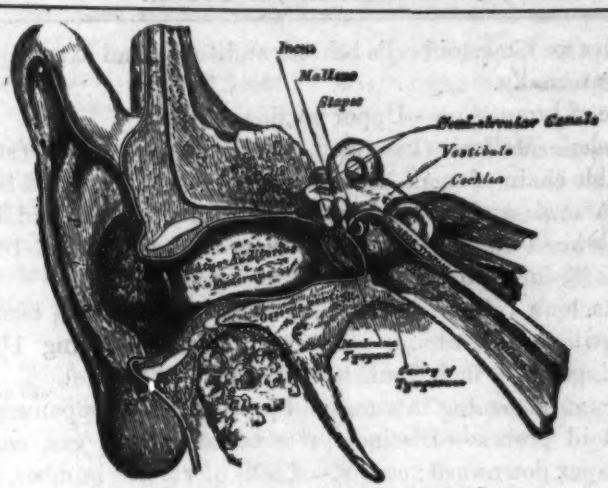
22. Tongue.

23. Esophagus; muscular canal nine inches long.

24. Basilar process of occipital bone.

25. Nasopharynx; upper portion of pharynx—postnasal space; resonating chamber.

26. Oropharynx; lower portion of pharynx; pharynx 4½ inches in length.



DESCRIPTIVE ANATOMY OF EAR.[5]

External ear—Auricle, or pinna; external auditory canal, or meatus.

Middle ear, or tympanum—Membrana tympani; tympanic cavity and attic; ossicles; eustachian tube; antrum; mastoid process.

Internal ear, or labyrinth—Osseous labyrinth (vestibule; semicircular canals; cochlea). Membranous labyrinth (utricle; saccule; membranous semicircular canals; membranous cochlea).

Auditory nerve; divided into vestibular and cochlear branches at bottom of internal auditory canal.

Muscles of auricle—Nine; but slightly developed in man.

Vascular and nervous supply to auricle—Three arteries, and veins to correspond; six nerves.

External auditory canal—About 1¼ inch in length, cartilage ½ inch, bone ¾ inch; silghtly curved, convexity upward; narrowest near central portion beyond which pouch-like expansion; greatest diameter vertical at outer end, but transverse at inner end; average width ¼ inch.

Membrana tympani—Drum-head, an oval, translucent membrane placed obliquely at bottom of meatus; ⅜ inch diameter.

Tympanum, or tympanic cavity—Of irregular form, about ½ inch front to rear, ⅓ inch vertically, 1-5 inch transversely; carotid

[5]Courtesy, Lea Bros. & Co., Philadelphia.

canal in front, mastoid cells behind, auditory canal externally, labyrinth internally.

Attic of tympanum—Upper portion thereof.

Ossicles—Malleus (hammer), incus (anvil), stapes (stirrup); a movable chain of small bones connecting drum head and labyrinth through oval window; malleus upper bone, incus middle bone, stapes lower bone and smallest bone in the body (1-6x1-10 inch); malleus ⅜ inch long; incus ⅓ inch long.

Eustachian tube—About 1½ inches long, outer ⅓ bone, inner 2-3 cartilage and fibrous tissue; tympanic opening 1½ inch, pharyringeal, ⅓ inch diameter.

Antrum—Opening into mastoid process from tympanum.

Mastoid process—Distinct prominence back of ear, conical in shape, apex downward; consists of cells of various number, size and shape intercommunicating; but one at birth (antrum of good size), others developing.

Fenestra ovalis vestibuli—Oval window, kidney-shaped, leading from tympanum into vestibule and closed by foot-plate of stapes; 1-10 inch long diameter.

Fenestra rotunda cochlea—Round window, leading from tympanum into cochlea and closed by membrane; 1-12 inch diameter.

Tensor tympani—Muscle of tympanum to increase tension of drumhead by drawing same inward.

Vestibule—Ovoid cavity between cochlea and semicircular canals, about 1-5 inch from before backward, 1-5 inch from above downward, and with which all parts of internal ear communicate.

Semicircular canals—Three curved bony tubes of unequal length (3-5 to 1 inch) springing from rear portion of vestibule 1-20 inch in diameter, each lying at right angle to other two, and each containing a membranous canal of same shape 1-60 inch in diameter; a peripheral space-organ acting through brain center for preservation of equilibrium.

Cochlea—Conical, snail-shaped cavity in front of vestibule about 1-4 inch in length, breadth of base 1-4 inch; divided and subdivided into spaces by diaphragms, one of which near apex contains organ of Corti with 10,500 rods and 21,300 hair cells, each supposed to vibrate to a single sound.

Internal auditory canal—About ⅓ inch long, through which facial and auditory nerves enter internal ear between semicircular canals and cochlea.

Perilymph—Fluid in space between membranous and osseus labyrinths.

Endolymph—Fluid contained within membranous labyrinth.

Otoliths, or ear stones—Minute crystals, carbonate of lime, found in various parts of labyrinth, but mostly in saccule and utricle; function problematical.

Beauty's Realm

"What is thy realm, O Beauty?" the poet asked.
"I am thy loyal worshiper and would gladly
Traverse thy whole domain.
My pulses thrill with sentient rhapsodies,—
Wild winds, the matin music of the birds
And perfume of green meadows freshly mown,
Glories of sunset and the misty robe
Of mountain summits, midnight silences
In starry spaces, softly rounded limbs
Of childhood, and a woman's flexible curves,
Inspire my soul with bliss ineffable.
But have you other media for the poet's art?"
Clear came the answer:
"All these sensuous joys
Are surely mine. But have you never known
The beauties of the spirit world?
Mother devotion, the upspringing loves
Of men and maidens, honor's high behest,
The glory of self-sacrifice and stern resolve
For tasks of service, patience, reverence, faith,—
Think not, O poet, that the harmonies
Of form and glowing color can arouse
Such magic impulse for the poet's art
As these can give.
From the world of sense
Take then full inspiration. Yet the gleam
That shines from Beauty's loftiest pinnacles
Is lighted from above.
Into my inner temples enter thou,
My poet-worshiper, and there receive
The visions of thy Art in fullest ecstasy."

MARY HALL LEONARD.

Teaching What Nature Demands

ALFRED L. HALL-QUEST, UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

MUCH of the confusion current in educational practice would be removed if school authorities applied some of the knowledge about their own human nature, knowledge that is common among all but seemingly unfamiliar to many because of the technical terms used to classify this common knowledge. It does not require long schooling to understand that man ought to live a healthy life, that if disease is not altogether a crime it is a social foe and ought to be shunned intelligently and systematically. One does not need much instruction to appreciate the fact that man is a rational creature, that thinking is the main business of his higher order of life, and that thinking depends upon knowledge and experience. Do we need to attend school to appreciate the profound truth that man instinctively draws near to his fellow men? The hermit is abnormal. We are social animals and for this reason ought to stimulate sympathetic interest in our fellow citizens. Very early in his childhood man is taught another lesson from his own human nature—the lesson of prayer, and religious devotion. He is informed, perhaps unwisely, of the good God who with fatherly care watches over us all. The child voices his easily accepted dependence in the form of petitions and so begins his ceaseless wonderment about the Great Father who rules we know not where or how. These and other indices are common knowledge. We all do these things because instinctively we want to live, to know, to love, to worship, to work. Here are the large portals of education. These are nature's plan of education. In this way, along these broad lines shalt thou train the child in the way he should go, that when he is old he will not depart therefrom. Teaching what nature demands is simply to follow the main lines of human development on the bases of instincts. We shall discuss briefly five of the groups that most evidently belong to school tasks.

1. *To live a healthy life.* One of the controlling impulses and instincts of all higher animal life is the instinct to preserve one's

own life. Naturally we shun danger of all kinds. We are guarded against evil by our instinct of fear. Bodily injury, disease, death—any influence that hampers or destroys the equanimity of healthy living is naturally avoided. Nature wants us to fight for health. Health is nature's balance. There have been and are notable exceptions to this rule. Pope, Coleridge, Milton, Poe were far from sound in body, but nevertheless they became masters of their respective arts. Ill health sometimes becomes a mad, stampeding force urging the mind to unexpected victories. Marshall P. Wilder, a dwarf and a cripple, lived to wreath the faces of sorrow and fear with smiles and hope. Steinmetz, another dwarf, is one of America's, nay of the world's, electric wizards. But we cannot generalize from a few exceptions. Health, ruddy, thrilling, euphonic health—this is nature's equipment for the best kind of work.

If modern educational research had done nothing more for the public schools of America, its development of the science of school hygiene and the hygiene of the child would amply prove its efficiency. Medical inspection is no longer a dreamer's theory. It is now practically national in its scope. Doubtless, the time is coming when all teachers will be required to know some of the fundamentals in the training of nurse candidates. The teacher is responsible for the full rounded development of the pupils in her charge. She should guard their eye-sight, hearing, posture. Proper physical exercise, instruction in physiology supplemented with lectures by reputable local physicians is just as much the duty of the school authorities as giving instruction in mathematics or sewing. Without for a second depreciating the Boy Scout Movement as an independent organization, I would like to see in all public schools a definite program of physical training, not military in character or purpose, but physical, the building up of sturdy supple frames, normal circulation, splendid lung capacity, keen vision, acute hearing, muscular ease—in short, the unfolding of boys and girls whose entrance upon the great duties and joys of manhood and womanhood would advance and perpetuate a physically sound race.

A cursory glance over school programs shows, to be sure, that attempts are being made to answer this call of the self-preservative

instinct. But we need to go beyond medical inspection, a brief course in hgiene and elective gymnasium work and athletics. Every school day might well begin with some form of physical exercise. Recesses should be in the open, rain or shine, warmth or cold, if it is possible to provide playground awnings and sufficient clothing. In the far north children find a world of healthy fun rolling in the snow, throwing snow-balls and in other ways indulging from necessity in vigorous exercise. If I had to choose between a high salaried instructor in manual training and a capable, scientific, manly instructor in physical health at an even greater salary, I would without a moment's hesitation choose the latter. Our young children and adolescents have a right to know about the physical machine they own, how it is organized and how to operate it most effectively. This is the first law of life. Instinct points the way.

2. *To know richly and accurately.* Everybody is curious and everybody imitates. Newspapers and colleges prosper because of the former, and fashion enslaves men and women alike because of the latter. The instincts of curiosity and imitation are the two pillars of all education. Man's quest for truth has been resistless from the first crude cosmogonies of the ancients to the profoundest and minutest research of modern philosophy and science. Man must be curious. The animal's curiosity leads it to find suitable food and a comfortable resting place. In the child there are deep hungers that restlessly urge him to fleeting satisfactions and then on, ever on, to larger experiences. He is interested in fairy stories, myths and fables because they are answers to his curiosity about the world around him. He asks questions about big lakes, birds, trees, bugs, and the clouds; and is answered by geography, nature study, and elementary science. Deeper and more puzzling forms of life appear before him, social usages that make it possible for him to live a social life; and he finds them explained in arithmetic, in daily problems of all kinds. But he sees wonderful structures also, ingenious devices that once no doubt puzzled primative man before they worked for his upkeep; and the child feels the movements of the race in his arms and fingers. He too must build as others have done. Designing, modelling, handicraft of various kinds reply to this instinct of imitation. He hears parents

and others babbling strange sounds—and soon he too gurgles and "da-das" and "ha-has" the same. It is the beginning of language, expression by imitation.

By these two highways of curiosity and imitation the child slowly, stage by stage in his development, acquires a rich store of experience usable for the gathering of rarer treasures and more satisfying solutions of life's enigmas. The teacher who appreciates this hint from nature will accordingly seek to satisfy the child's natural curiosity by wholesome novelty and by presenting the pupil to the very things that puzzle him! He must learn by studying the things that puzzle and arouse him. He is interested consciously or unconsciously in the "what" of things and in the "why" of them. Knowledge for its own sake has a mystic idealism about it, but there is no knowledge apart from utility. We know in order to satisfy some natural hunger of our being. When knowledge evolves a mere book miser it is abnormal and worthless. Curiosity and imitation aim to make us larger and nobler and wiser. And so the teacher is called upon to show the pupil his own social and personal needs and how these can be satisfied now and increasingly more so.

3. *To love broadly and usefully.* The growing individual is naturally selfish. Young children want the biggest apple, the largest kite, the finest toy. Adolescents form cliques and exercise various forms of social ostracism, such as ridicule, dress, display of privileges. The tenacity of self-preservative forces is constantly forcing social mindedness to fight its way to refinement. But we are all aware of the gregarious instinct. Pity and sympathy well deep and high in the face of greater disaster. The present war has shown abundant illustrations of this. In the light of history we today are closer to the brotherhood of man than might seem true from the conditions of Europe. We must be socially minded. And we need to be educated to its possibilities. The studies of history, civics and literature serve to bring before the pupil racial and group ideals that lift into prominence the truth that no man can live unto himself. We are interdependent. No nation is wholly unnecessary to others. Its products, its ideals, its customs, its good will are exchanged for similar advantages from others.

The playground movement, camp life, patriotic exercises, hero-

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The playground movement, camp life, patriotic exercises, hero-

days, memorial pageants, monuments—all testify to the intensity of the group instinct. The pupil needs also to learn humility, sacrifice, cooperativeness. It is less important for him to insist on his rights than it is to stress his duties and privileges. Moral education as the atmosphere of every classroom is the paramount duty of every school teacher, and this implies, what is only too frequently ignored, that the teacher can best teach these social truths by example; i. e., by living among the pupils a beautiful, winsome incarnation of the sympathetically social life.

4. *To vision and to possess the divine.* One of the easy temptations of those who are concerned with intellectual matters is to discount and to ignore the behests of the religious instinct. However we may differ regarding denominational creeds (which are purely intellectual phases of religion) we must ascribe to the fact that man craves contact with something superior to his own life. Perhaps it is a highly evolved manifestation of the instinct of fear. Primitive man heard and saw natural phenomena that could not be explained by any rational or otherwise satisfactory method. Some power unknown and invisible hurled the thunderbolt, shook the tempest-frenzied trees, stirred into seething, hissing anger the lately placid lakes and streams. From the dark came moans and cries. Mysterious forces killed his tribesmen and strange influences sent him the harvest yield. Man looked up unto the hills whence came not only his help but his destruction, and looking up he sought to draw nigh to his invisible Master and to offer appeasing gifts or present sacrifices of praise and thanksgiving. Explain its origin how we may it still is commonly true that prayer is one of man's most refined modes of self-expression. Religious devotion, apart from any narrow dogmatic interpretation, is the glorification of the best in man.

While it is undesirable for the public school to teach denominationalism in any form, it is altogether worthy of the teacher to interpret life in the terms of the religious instinct. It would be an advantage if some one would compile the most inspiring sections of all the sacred books of all religions for a reading book in English courses.

5. *To construct new forms of economical and peaceful living.* The modern emphasis on vocational efficiency and its necessary

development in vocational curriculums is no less important than to provide each school person with ideals of sound social living and to equip him with the means of approximating these ideals in a reasonably short period. The test of any educational system lies in the amount of initiative and the refinement of idealism and the righteousness of method characterizing the incoming recruits in active citizenship. Men for centuries have been builders of states, internally advantageous to each citizen or subject. The present European war indicates that education has failed to produce men and women with minds and hearts big enough to recognize in peoples of other states justice and rights common to all men. Nationalism has become a fetich, a Moloch, a Juggernaut, a Gehenna. Diplomacy with its fantastic uniforms and insincere etiquette upsets and overrides the laws of right and wrong that each nation protects for its own citizens. But higher than this internal safety are international trust and cooperation intolerant of duplicity in international affairs and opposed to the double standard of morals, one for individuals and another for states.

If such a program of international peace is feasible (and surely it does not lie beyond realization) then the educational systems of the world face a task worthy of man's noblest powers. It is not enough to evolve a culture that softens and enriches our external conditions of living; there is a culture of heart, a refinement of emotions, and exaltation of motives, that must accompany the former. It is at this point that education breaks down. Intellectual acumen and broad scholarship do not show high correlation with friendly sentiments and neighborly helpfulness in the large meanings of these terms. Human nature and state nature demand not nationalism but universal brotherhood as safeguards of permanent achievement in all realms of thought and activity. The American boys and girls who have been lifted intellectually by public school training some day will face as voters and leaders not only national needs and crises, but they will meet men and women who have studied world truths in England, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, et al. Their language differs from ours, customs and interpretations vary from our own, but the fact that all of them have studied the same or similar problems becomes a common basis not only for individual intercourse but for state coop-

eration and state fellowship. If their and our intellectual training will not help them and us to plan equity and peace for us all and our states; if study and broad mental travel with resulting insight will not give all of us power to penetrate the veil of state idolatry and superstition, then we are doomed to build empires and to evolve homes and arts to-day only for state fanatics to mutilate and to destroy tomorrow. Perhaps, as Kidd claims, war is the essential of progress. If so, is progress worth while?

Life

The mist where the billows roll—
And the far-off, blazing sun,
Are born of the same great soul;
All is spirit, all is one.

The lily and the rose
Whose fragrance fills the air—
One hidden life disclose,
Each is a spirit fair.

The blossom that decays,
And seems to fade from earth—
With life immortal stays—
And seeks a fairer birth.

No life is base or lowly,
For all life is divine,
And climbeth heavenward slowly,
Where forms in glory shine.

Though darkly now we wander,
The shadows shall be past,
And all shall see the splendor
Of sunny heights at last.

A. S. Ames, Medfield, Mass.

Outline Study of Virgil's Aeneid,

Books III to VI.*

By Superintendent A. T. Sutton, Chelan, Wash.

Book III.

k. (Proem). In winter after fall of Troy Aeneas builds a fleet. (1-8).

l. (Narrative). The journey is begun and the first stage is from mount Ida to Thrace. He set sail in the summer of the second year. (13-68).

I. Aeneas builds a city. (17-18).

II. Adventures in Thrace. (19-68).

m. Second stage—Thrace to Delos (in spring of third year). (69-101).

I. Voyage: landing. (69-83).

II. Consults oracle of Apollo at Delos. (84-101).

n. Third stage—Delos to Crete, (spring of third year). (102-146)

I. Misinterpreting the response of the oracle, Aeneas sails for Crete instead of Italy. (102-131).

II. He lands at Crete; ill-omens and plague retard the building of the city. (132-146).

o. Fourth stage—from Crete to the Strophides. (147-266).

I. Spends two years in Crete: warned by the Gods he sails in the fifth year for Italy. (147-208).

II. Adventures in the Strophides. (209-266).

p. Fifth stage—From the Strophides to Actium. (266-288).

q. Sixth stage—From Actium to Buthrotum (sixth year). (289-505).

I. Aeneas finds there Helenus a son of Priam with his wife Andromache: Aeneas' reception. (289-356).

*For similar Outlines on Caesar's Gallic War, the Catilinian Orations, Cicero's Defense of the proposed Manilian Law and of Virgil's Aeneid Books I and II by the same author see Education for Nov., 1914, Feb., March, May, October, December, 1915, and September, November 1916, and April, 1917. Attention is called to an error in the title of the Outline printed in September, 1916, Education, which should have read: "Cicero's Second, Third and Fourth Catilinian Orations."

II. Aeneas is instructed by Helenus in all the trials that yet await him on his voyage. (356-462).

1. Not to sail directly across to Italy on account of the Greeks. (396-398).
2. Must go to the nearest point in Italy and coast to Sicily up on the west side of Italy. (403-432).
3. Must propitiate Juno in every possible way. (437-439).
4. Before the wanderings of the Trojans are ended Aeneas must consult the Cumaean Sybil. (441-460).

III. The departure. (463-405).

r. Seventh stage—from Buthrotum to Promontorium Acroceraunium. (406-520).

s. Eighth stage thence to Promontorium Iapygium Salentinum (extremity of Italy). (521-550).

t. Ninth stage—from southern Italy to eastern Sicily.

I. He touches near mount Aetna. (551-587).

II. Adventures in Sicily. (588-683).

u. Tenth stage—from the east coast around to Drepanum. (684-715).

I. Avoiding Scylla and Chaybdis Aeneas reaches Drepanum. (684-708).

II. Anchises, Aeneas' father, dies in Drepanum. (708-715).

(At line 715 of this Book the narrative of Book I begins)

Book IV.

21. Dido falls in love with Aeneas: her sister Anna advises her to marry him. (1-53).
22. Description of Dido's state of mind. (54-89).
23. Juno alarmed proposes to Venus the marriage of the two and the union of their Nations: Venus assents. (90-128).
24. The hunt of the Carthagenians and Trojans: during a storm sent by Juno Aeneas and Dido take refuge in the same cave and are married (?) there. (129-172).
25. Rumor bears the tidings through Lybia. (173-197).
26. King Iarbus complains to Jupiter because Dido has rejected him for Aeneas. (198-218).

27. Jupiter sends Mercury to Aeneas and tells him to go on to Italy. 219-278).
28. Aeneas obeys and prepares to depart: he hopes to conceal his plans from Dido. (279-295).
29. Queen Dido vainly tries to turn him from his purpose. (296-449).
    a. Her first appeal. (296-331).
    b. Aeneas' reply. (331-361).
    c. Dido's threats. (362-392).
    d. She views the departure: sends Anna to try to turn Aeneas from his purpose: he is obdurate. (393-449).
30. Dido resolves to die: omens strengthen her purpose. (450-473).
31. She bids Anna to build a funeral pyre and pretends that it is intended for the celebration of magic rites which shall cure her of her love. (474-521).
32. She spends a night of agony; Aeneas sets sail in the middle of the night. (522-583).
33. In the morning Dido maddened by the sight of the ships curses Aeneas. (584-629).
34. She dismisses her attendants, reviews her life and slays herself. (630-705).

Book V.

35. Aeneas sails for Italy but is driven to Sicily by a storm. (1(41).
36. He celebrates games at his father's tomb on the anniversary of Anchises' death. (42-603).
    a. Aeneas gives his reasons for establishing an annual festival. (42-71).
    b. He sacrifices at the tomb of Anchises. (72-103).
    c. The boat race—four galleys. (104-285).
        I. Preparations. (104-138).
        II. The race. (139-243).
        III. Prizes awarded. (244-385).
    d. The foot race. (286-361).
        I. Preparations. (286-314).

II. The race. (315-339).

III. Prizes given. (340-361).

e. The boxing match. (362-484).

f. Archery contest. (485-544).

g. A mimic cavalry engagement performed by the Trojan and Sicilian boys. (545-603).

37. Juno sends Iris to urge the Trojan women to set fire to the ships; four are burned; the rest are saved in answer to the prayers of Aeneas. (604-699).

38. Nautes and the Shade of Anchises advise Aeneas in regard to his future course. (700-745).

39. Aeneas founds a city in Sicily. (746-761).

40. Trojans set sail for Italy; Neptune secures a favorable voyage for them. At last they (Book VI, line 2.) reach the longed-for shore. (762-871).

41. The landing and sojourn at Cumae. (1-236).

a. Aeneas seeks the cave of the Sibyl. (1-41).

b. Aeneas consults the oracle.

I. His prayer; prophecy of the Sibyl. (42-97).

II. He assures the Sibyl that nothing can happen worse than has already happened to him. (98-115).

III. He begs that he may interview his father in the world of spirits. (116-123).

IV. The Sibyl consents under certain conditions. (124-155).

c. Aeneas finds the body of Misenus and makes ready to perform certain funeral rites. (156-184).

d. While seeking for the funeral pyre he sees the golden bough. (185-211).

e. The funeral rites of Misenus. (212-236).

42. The abode of the dead.

a. With the bough, and accompanied by the Sibyl, Aeneas reaches the entrance to the lower world. (237-272).

b. In front of the entrance to Hades are grouped all the ills and calamities of human life. (273-281).

c. The monsters in "the shadow of the dream tree". (282-289).

d. The involuntary action of Aeneas. (290-294).

e. Aeneas' adventures on the earth side of the Styx. (295-416).
   I. Scene on the river bank. (295-337).
   II. Interview with Palinurus. (338-383).
   III. Crossing the Styx. (384-416).

f. Aeneas after crossing the Styz. (417-).
   I. Abode of the disembodied spirits of infants; of unjustly killed; of suicides. (417-439).
   II. The mourning fields. (440-476).
   1. Sees Phaedra, Procris, Eriphyle, Evadne, Laodamia, Caeneus, Dido.
   III. Realms of slain warriors. (477-547).
   IV. Tartarus. (548-627).
   1. Description of Tartarus. (548-616).
   2. The Sibyl explains to Aeneas all the different punishments which are here inflicted on the incurably wicked. (616-627).
   V. Elysium. (628-).
   1. Aeneas hasten to the palace of Pluto and deposits the golden bough. (628-636).
   2. The abodes of those who have lived virtuously on earth. (637-665).
      a. Each shade follows the pursuit it loved on earth, (637-665).
      b. The descendants of Teucer. (648-660).
      c. The "noble company who braved wounds for fatherland". (660-).
      d. Priests who kept their purity all their lives. (661-).
      e. "All the poets whose hearts were clean". (662).
      f. "All those who by their inventions gave a grace to life". (663-664).
   3. Musaeus guides Aeneas to his father. (666-678).
      a. The meeting. (679-702).
      b. Anchises explains to Aeneas the nature of the soul and of its purification. (703-751).
      c. Anchises then enumerates the glories of those

who—in their pre-existent state—built up Rome. (752-886).

I. The shades of those conspicuous for war.

II. And of those conspicuous for arts of peace and for founding cities.

d. Anchises directs Aeneas as to his future conduct.

43. Conclusion. (893-901).

a. Anchises dismisses Aeneas and the Sibyl through the gates of sleep. (892-898).

b. Aeneas joins his fleet which he moors at Caieta. (899-901).

German in Our Public Schools

T. W. Todd, Washburn College, Topoka, Kansas.

IN this paper it will be assumed that, at least, the teachers of German will agree that the study of German should not be eliminated from the curriculum of the public school. I also assume that there will be no inclination on the part of any to deny that the study of German in our schools *has* suffered from 1914 to 1917 very noticeably and in the last year even disastrously.

In at least one of the leading Kansas colleges the enrollment in the department of German has decreased 66 per cent since the fall of 1914 without any material decrease of enrollment in the institution as a whole. During the same period the enrollment in the courses in German in the Topeka High School has decreased 36 per cent, the total enrollment of the school being approximately the same as in 1914. There is no reason to suppose that this is not fairly indicative of the situation in the state of Kansas as a whole. The action of the Board of Education of the city of Chicago in eliminating all beginning classes in German from the public schools of Chicago, other than the high schools, is well known.

The situation, in this state at least, does not justify any expression of indignation or even of any considerable degree of surprise. Thoughtfulness and the judicial consideration of a subject are not characteristic of youth. Youth is controlled rather by sentiment and feeling and, just now, the feeling against German is a very natural one and one that will increase rather than diminish with the prolongation of the war.

Whatever the result of the war may be I do not think that the German language can be entirely ignored any more than German history can be ignored. The people that produced Luther and Melancthon, Goethe and Schiller, Beethoven and Wagner will always be worth hearing about. And the time will come when great literature will again be produced in Germany, especially if the war should result in the exaltation of the individual to some-

what the same degree of political and spiritual freedom of expression in Germany, with which he finds himself blessed in most of the countries of the western hemisphere.

I do not, however, think that the study of German will ever quite regain its former position in our public schools. I think it is true that practically every reason for the study of German that was valid four years ago is equally valid now. Unfortunately several of the reasons that have proven most potent in the past have never been wholly valid. The reasons which, in recent years, have been so persistently urged for the substitution of German for Latin have, it seems to me, been pretty definitely proven fallacious.

So, I think the most that we may hope to see after the termination of the war is the restoration of German to its legitimate, normal position, a position for which it will not need to be justified, but in which it will justify itself.

It is apparent that the present situation is due, not to reason, but to the sentiment and feeling of the pupils themselves and of those who are responsible for their choice of subjects. How, then, may we best contribute to the restoration of reason? Certainly not by argument. Passion is not wont to yield to argument. The proper attitude must be cultivated above all by a sensible and discreet attitude on the part of the teacher himself. The study of German and admiration for the great literature of Germany is not inconsistent with thorough-going Americanism. A teacher whose knowledge of the language and whose acquaintance with the literature of Germany has merely contributed to an unreasoning admiration of everything German and to an incapacity to appreciate American institutions, has no legitimate claim to a place in the public school and will do much more to discourage than to encourage the study of German.

The press is a powerful influence which we cannot disregard. Local newspapers can do much, if they will, to call our people back to reason in this matter. An occasional editorial showing a favorable position on the part of the editor will do positive good. Perhaps we can encourage such favorable expression. It seems to me, too, that our position may be somewhat strengthened by some modification in our method of instruction and particularly in the angle of attack. Possibly greater emphasis on the close kinship

of English and German might tend in this direction, the frequent but tactful reminder that our English ancestors were German and that English of Anglo-Saxon origin is German; that whenever our English word is a real Anglo-Saxon word it is very apt to have its cognate in German.

The study of cognate words is of great value in itself and I think we have never given it sufficient consideration in our high school work. It will help to clarify the matter if, at the beginning, attention is called to the derivation of the word *cognate,* i. e. that it is not from *cognosco,* as pupils of Latin are apt hastily to infer, but from the deponent verb *nascor,* to be born; hence to be born together, i. e. twins. This discovery on the part of the pupil will lead to many interesting associations. When a pupil has learned to associate Bach and beck the chances are that he has learned a new English word and so has added two new and useful words to his vocabulary. In the two words town and Zaun a considerable part of the history of civilization is revealed, while the identification of knave and Knabe will elicit an appreciative response, especially on the part of the girls. Those of us who are of Scotch antecedents will be interested in numerous German cognates found in Scotland where the original Saxon has survived in many words that have long since become obsolete in English, the most obvious of which are kirk and Kirche, birk and Birke, kale and Kohl, wale and Wachlen, stirk and Starke (Immensee).

To this point let me add an appeal for greater emphasis on the reading, not necessarily on translation, but intelligent reading of the German text and an intelligible rendering, at least of difficult passages into readable English. We can never do wholly without translation. Translation plays too important a part in commercial life, in political life, in the realm of diplomacy and in literature. Now it is stark folly to assume that we can ever impart to the pupil a speaking knowledge of, or the ability to converse in, German in our public schools. Not many of us possess it ourselves and if we do we have not acquired it in the public schools. I am an advocate of constant oral practice in the classroom but whatever we may do in this way is purely incidental to the much more important matter of cultivating an ability to read.

In the choice of reading texts there is also opportunity for the

exercise of sound discretion. Unfortunately you are excluded, in this state, from a choice of an elementary reader, and in this case the committee will be lenient with me, I am sure, if I surmise that if the selection were to be made today they would probably be able to make a more tactful choice than has been made in the selection of the one now in use.

I should like also to enter a protest against the familiar objection to stories with a non-German setting, and in doing so to atone, if possible, for any guilt of my own in having unwittingly lent support to this particular form of German propaganda. The very best of Heyse's work (and this means the very best in the German short story form) is to be found in his Italian stories. While these may not be German stories in the sense that they have a German setting they form a part of German literature which the Germans themselves would be the last to repudiate. Moreover Heyse's language is thoroughly German and of a quality rarely equalled and never surpassed.

In conclusion if the reader will be charitable with me I will make an exceedingly heretical suggestion, a suggestion which, however, is made rather in the form of an interrogation than as a recommendation. I have found Freiligrath's excellent and beautiful translations of Tennyson and Longfellow of intense interest to college students. And this interest is all the greater because of the student's familiarity with the original, a familiarity acquired surreptitiously I suppose, for they have assuredly been told that these are but third rate poets, if, indeed, not enirely negligible.

Now, I am not at all sure that, just at the present time, the occasional use of English and American authors in German translation might not be something more than a happy experiment. The Germans have very excellent translations of most of our best writers. In fact I am inclined to think that, in order to find anything really exciting in fiction the Germans *have* to go to the French or English. What original German story could we find to which the average American boy would react as he would to Treasure Island or Huckleberry Finn? Poe's stories ought to appeal to both boys and girls and should lose little in the process of translation, much less, of course, than Mark Twain. Sherlock Holmes would probably go far toward making the course in German one of the most

popular courses in the high school. Do not misunderstand me. I am only raising a question here though in all seriousness. The value of such translations I regard as purely experimental, as something that can be determined only after fair trial.

The suggestions that I have been urging, not as infallible panaceas but as something entitled to consideration, are, in brief summary:

First,—the necessity of a right attitude on the part of the teacher himself;

Second,—the encouragement, wherever possible, of newspapers to a favorable expression of sentiment;

Third,—the importance of making very clear the close relationship of the English and German races, and, in this connection, the twofold value of the study of cognate words;

Fourth,—a greater emphasis on the disciplinary value of the study of German, and less attention to so-called *Realien,* especially in the high school;

Fifth,—the possibilities that may exist in the occasional use of German translations of English and American authors.

The Teaching of Oral English

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THE importance of the spoken word is being shown by the great war in which we are now engaged. Since the United States entered it, speakers have been sought out and sent everywhere throughout the land to explain why we entered the war, to awaken our sympathy for those who are going to fight our battles for us, and to make us ready to give, if necessary, our last full measure of devotion to the cause which we have espoused. Not all of the speakers sent out upon this errand are succeeding as well as they wish. Many of them, had they been better trained, could carry out more acceptably the sacred trust which they have found it necessary to assume.

In both war and peace, other things being equal, those who can speak well in public, are best able to carry on important work. Since we of this generation are now being made to realize more fully than we have before the importance of public speaking, it seems fitting that we give increased attention to the teaching of Oral English. There is opportunity in most grammar grades, high schools and colleges to do more in the way of training young people to talk well before an audience. In order that our minds may be refreshed regarding the best methods of teaching Oral English, this paper has been prepared.

When setting about the teaching of the subject, the first step consists in presenting enthusiastically motives for taking up the work. In the grammar grades, it may be pointed out, that the boys and girls will become able to express themselves in speech with more clearness and force, thus becoming better leaders in playground activities. It may be said that the training will increase their power to delight the hearers of the church, school and society programs in which they have a part. Classes may also be reminded that the boy or girl who takes the work will learn to recite lessons more ably and so attain higher class standing.

In high schools and colleges, teachers may point out that besides being helpful in classroom work and in student activities generally, training in public speaking will prove useful in after life. Attention should be directed to people near at hand of high and low degree who find that being good speakers is of value. Frances Willard and Dr. Anna Shaw may well be spoken of as having accomplished great things because of being able to talk effectively to audiences. Judge Ben Lindsey, Samuel Gompers, Theodore Roosevelt and President Wilson may be referred to as having found it advisable to train themselves carefully as orators.

To get students to take up the work readily, subjects should be assigned in which they are immediately interested. Needless to say, it is difficult at first to make a speech, so at the beginning of a course, it is well to assign subjects upon which addresses can quite easily be prepared. As much as possible, talks should be given on topics regarding which the students can speak from experience. Occasionally it is well to make assignments having distinct ethical value. Among such are: A Deed of Patriotism, A Deed of Self Denial, A Deed of Service, A Deed of Heroism. Subjects should always be specific. The Manufacture of Aeroplanes, A Visit to The Red Cross Headquarters, and The Rise of Northcliffe are good. Sometimes opportunity should be afforded in classes for the introduction of merriment. The Funniest Story I Know, and The Most Amusing Experiences I Have Ever Had, can be successfully assigned.

Subjects should frequently be used through which the students may gain helpful information. Biographical sketches of explorers, inventors, scientists, artists, statesmen, warriors and social service workers may well be given. Works of art and the great triumphs of science aid of nature, make good topics for talks.

Vocational guidance is in place in an Oral English course. Now and then a class may be made to investigate the nature of the various professions, trades and other occupations and to give talks about them so that all may become better informed regarding the many lines of activity open to the young people of today.

When a subject has been assigned the first thing for a student to do is to gather material. In beginning this, he should think out all the ideas which he himself has on the subject. The next step

is to go about finding out all he can from other sources. The subject should be discussed with fellow students, the teacher, parents and others who are well informed. Maps, pictures, newspapers, magazines, pamphlets and books, all should be given attention. Places should be visited from which information can be gained. Often it is advisable to send away for material. Notes should be taken carefully on all that is learned.

To be superior, a speech must be well planned. In the introduction may be presented reasons for taking up the subject, its origin, or history. The subject may be explained or narrowed. A description of something closely connected with the theme may be used, as may an appropriate story. Often speakers begin with a simple announcement of the subject and of the main topics to be considered. Generally orators use a combination of the various methods of beginning an address.

An introduction should secure respect for the speaker, by making the audience feel that they are to hear an excellent address delivered by one who speaks with authority. A pleasing introduction leads up to the subject to be discussed and interests the hearers in the thought upon which the address is to be made. The beginning of a speech should be simple and optimistic. It should not be argumentative, antagonistic or present views not held by the audience. An introduction may contain humor and it may well indicate that the orator enjoys speech making and that he is pleased to address the audience before him.

In the discussion, material should be arranged in accordance with one or more of three laws—the law of sequence, the law of association, and the law of contrast. The laws of unity, variety and climax should always be observed. When several definite points are to be discussed, it is well to organize the material so that it can be presented under two, three or four heads. Material should be carefully selected and arranged. Concrete facts and illustrations which appeal to the imagination and to the emotions are found in abundance in good addresses. High moral motives for action should be appealed to, the highest, most unselfish motive being appealed to last.

The conclusion of a speech is especially important. The effect of an excellent address is often destroyed by an offensive conclusion. A good conclusion tends to increase the respect and

admiration which the audience has for the speaker. It should not be antagonistic. It should not be humorous. Forceful, elegant language is found in masterly conclusions. Speeches may end with an appeal, a summary, an application of the subject to the audience, a narrative illustrating the theme, or an optimistic prophecy. Conclusions usually contain a combination of the various methods of closing an address.

The introduction and conclusion are generally of about equal length, and together in most speeches make up from one-eighth to one-third of the contents.

When a simple outline has been prepared, the address should be written. Then after two or three days it should be rewritten. Oratory is spoken thought charged with emotion. Have students keep this in mind while speeches are being composed. It is essential, too, to remember that the orator is he who can make his hearers feel about a subject as he feels and act toward a question as he wishes. That material should be selected which will prove most interesting and helpful to the audience and enable the orator best to accomplish his aim. When an address has taken final shape, the outline should be memorized. Then the wise young orator will re-read the speech frequently, seeking to memorize the ideas it contains rather than the exact word form. When mastered somewhat, the speech should be practiced aloud.

When talks are being given, the speaker should not be interrupted. Thoughtful teachers and students give the best of attention and seek to radiate encouragement to the one before the audience.

A student should be criticised when he has completed a speech. The best criticism is sympathetic, definite, constructive, optimistic, encouraging and stimulating. Its purpose is to inspire the student to greater, more successful endeavor. Harsh criticism is only in place when a student is trying to deceive teacher and classmates regarding his work. It is well to begin analysis of an oratorical effort with words of commendation.

Speeches should be criticised from many points of view. Faults in grammar may be given attention, as should the choice and arrangement of words and of materials. Criticism of clearness, unity, proportion and coherence is in place. Pronunciation and enunciation are among the things to be noted.

It is fitting to consider breathing and voice production. Orators breathe diaphramatically. Good speaking voices are rather low, flexible, sympathetic, pleasant, strong and positive.

In effective public speaking there is appropriate bodily expression. Poise and dignity, self reliance and strength, grace and character; these should be indicated by the bearing of the speaker. The emphasis of gesture and of attitude may well be taught.

The state of mind of the speaker is a matter worth considering. Desirable qualities in public speaking are optimism and modesty. Honesty, simplicity and tact also have their place in oratory, as do sincerity and altruism.

The one thing which determines the success of an address, is the atmosphere which the orator creates. At the dedication of the great Gettysburg Cemetery, Edward Everett delivered to an applauding audience an oration remarkable for its beauty and for the art with which it was spoken. Abraham Lincoln followed Everett, speaking simply from the depths of his great, sympathetic heart, he gave to the assembled thousands a message which impressed them so deeply that it will never be forgotten while the English tongue is spoken. The good teacher of oratory attempts first of all to make students simple and fine spirited as Lincoln was, and seeks, in addition, to teach the oratorical graces which are characteristic of able speakers. Such training will help students to create a strong wholesome atmosphere with their addresses.

Some able teachers have students keep notebooks in which are recorded the criticisms which they receive. This enables them to remember better just what to strive to improve in succeeding speeches.

It is advisable sometimes to have students give impromptu talks in order that they may realize more fully how valuable is careful preparation to the orator.

Those taking Oral English should hear as many able speakers as opportunity affords and discuss their good qualities in class.

By giving time and enthusiasm to the teaching of the art of public speaking, it may be made a pleasant study which will contribute much to the personal development and advancement of the students. And in addition to this, the training will always prove helpful to them in seeking to promote the welfare of society.

American Notes—Editorial

It seems to us that before the Summer Schools, this coming summer, there lies an unparalleled opportunity. So far from cutting down their efforts, their equipment of man-power and appropriations, they should rather raise these to the highest point of efficiency because of war conditions. The output of the summer schools is as important to the country at large as is the output of the munition factories or the shipyards. Vocational studies can be emphasized. Scientific and technical courses can be elaborated. Agricultural and business training can be kept in view, and teachers in attendance can be more deeply impressed with a spirit of fellowship and patriotism in shaping their work for the largest possible results in view of the demands upon their pupils in the coming years when the war is over and the adjustments and reconstructions of the post-bellum period press upon us. Those days will demand trained wills and clear thinking to solve their multitudinous problems. A generation of young people must be trained for this coming new world. How soon it will come no one now knows; but come it will and we must prepare for it. Upon the teachers rests a larger share of responsibility for the preparation. Obviously this can be even better done in the summer sessions than in the rush and absorption of regular school duties.

Many of the men teachers are, to be sure, at the front and cannot attend summer sessions this year. But as in all other fields of activity where women are coming forward so readily, and so nobly in assuming new roles and responsibilities heretofore belonging to men, so here hosts of women teachers who have never known the privileges and delights of summer school sessions should enroll and get the new vision and the larger preparation for what lies before them. Then, too, there are plenty of men teachers still left at home, who have not, for various reasons, been eligible for war service. These should feel moved to prepare themselves for new kinds of work in preparation for the coming new age. And might not some classes be formed in some of our summer schools which would attract younger pupils—say of high school age,—and set them forward upon the right track for specialized preparation for patriotic service? It is an age which calls for specialization and after the war there will be a tremendous demand for teachers with specific knowledge of the best methods and the shortest cuts to real achievement and the largest success. Let us then rally around the summer schools and use the opportunities they offer, with unusual fullness and enthusiasm. We can surely depend upon the management to offer the courses that are needed. The summer

school directors have always been "on their job." They will not fail in this present time of stress and emergency to re-demonstrate their alertness and efficiency.

Education is a process,—not a result. If there is a heaven after our journey through this earthly "vale of tears," surely its heavenliness will not consist in idleness. Unless all our nature and instincts are misleading, growth, development, progress must continue in the beyond. Stagnation would be punishment. A halt would be a hell.

The question is sometimes asked, which is most agreeable, anticipation, realization, or memory? Perhaps the answer which any one might give when asked this question would depend somewhat upon his mood or his bodily condition at the time being. If he had been strenuously working for some object and felt exhausted and perhaps discouraged he might say, "attainment"! But later when the fruits of victory had become stale and rest had restored to him his normal vigor he would probably sigh for new worlds to conquer. In the overwhelming rush and hurry of middle life many a man resolves to retire at sixty; and many a man does it,—and dies shortly. It is a dangerous thing to stop growing. The way to keep the body alive is to keep the mind active. And surely this is the way to be happy and useful. A heaven of harps and idleness is a fool's paradise and contradicts all human instinct and experience.

The moral of this little editorial sermon (which is for tired, overworked teachers, in particular) is to get your rest by a change of thought and interest, not by idleness. Take up some line outside of your daily routine and get your rest that way. It's the way "to do the trick,"— to use a colloquialism. You *have* a body, but you *are* a mind. The satisfaction of doing a good job at a church Sunday school, or in a Red Cross campaign, or as an official in a local club, or even in the completion of a course of reading which makes you an expert and an authority in some particular subject, will do more to rest you and promote bodily health and vigor than any amount of absolute loafing or frivolous dissipation. It is the process that counts. Keep growing and forbid your pupils, by precept and example, to speak of finishing their education. The process will go on so long as the soul lives. It is the joy of living.

The teacher who helped us most* was the one who believed in us and encouraged us to believe in ourselves and in our own ability to succeed. Not by direct words of praise, did he do this, but by treating us as though he thought us men and not babes,—by respect-

* See editorial on page 483 of February EDUCATION.

ing our personality and encouraging us to think for ourselves and to respect our own conclusions. He gave us talks within our comprehension and expected us to master them and then gave us opportunities to show that we had done so and praised us for the effort.

One particular occasion under this Freshman professor caused an awakening which amounted to a rebirth. We will relate the tale using the first personal pronoun. A prize was offered for the best performance of a certain piece of literary work, a translation from a foreign piece of literature into English. Hitherto we had been unawakened, intellectually. We had not become conscious of distinct individuality. We had only *absorbed* what we had attained—somewhat as "Topsy" "just growed." With brothers and sisters in the home we had worked out enigmas in the boys' and girls' magazines, and vied with our comrades in out-of-doors games. In much the same spirit we vied with our classmates in competing for this prize. Having done our best, *as a player at a game,* we dismissed the matter from mind, and forgot all about it, never even dreaming that our work had any merit. Several weeks passed and one morning the Professor called the class together and told us that the Committee of the Faculty had taken time to thoroughly examine the competing translations and had found two that were in close competition. The committee did not know the authorship of any of them as fictitious names had been a part of the requirements. He called upon one of the two to respond to the fictitious name which had been signed; and the most popular boy in the class stepped forward and was told to read to the class what he had written. Having done so he was applauded to the echo. Then the Professor read the name signed to the other translation and asked the boy, who had so signed, to rise.

That hour was the hour of the writer's intellectual birth. As the Professor, with the skill of a trained elocutionist chose to read to the class the words we had written, we could not believe our own ears. And when he said that the prize had been awarded to this translation because it was written in a more difficult meter than the blank verse of the other boy's effort,— and called upon us to go forward before the class and receive the award,—the heavens might have fallen and the earth have been dissolved and these events would have left us not more astounded than we were at that moment. We frankly confess that hitherto we had been at the foot of the class; and that other fellow had been at the head of everything—scholarship, athletics, popularity, everything! Yet in this contest we had beaten him! We have since heard people with religious zeal claim that they were converted at 9.30 P. M. on June 28, 1827,—or some other specified time. We didn't take much stock in such conversions, formerly. But since the experience above recounted we have been much more ready

to accept such claims to miraculous personal experiences of all kinds. Prize contests are not wholly desirable. But sometimes they are individually providential. Signed, "X."

Enrollment in American public schools has been affected by the war, but not to the extent of making it less than last year, according to figures compiled by the Department of the Interior through the Bureau of Education. Figures from 1411 cities and 696 counties or districts show an increase of close to the normal amount of 2½ per cent. in elementary schools. In high schools, however, the increase is only one-fourth of the usual 9½ per cent.

Such increase as there is in high school enrollment is caused by the girl students. Fewer boys are enrolled this year in every class in high school except the fourth; apparently there is a healthy tendency for boys in the senior year to remain and graduate.

In city elementary schools the increase in enrollment is actually somewhat above normal; but in city high schools there is a marked falling off, especially among the boys.

Country schools show some gains over last year both in elementary and high school enrollment, but not as great as would be expected under normal conditions. Rural high schools show increase for both boys and girls, despite the war.

Mary C. Bradford, President of the National Education Association, has issued a call to the teachers of the United States, in which she says: "You are hereby called to the Colors of the American Republic. The teaching force of the United States is summoned to serve anew in the great world crisis that is at hand. The war for human freedom can not be won unless the army of soldiers of the common good—the public school army—gives the fullest measure of sacrifice and service. Still more important, a new and fairer civilization will not take the place of the one that has broken down under the stress of conflict unless the molders of the soul-stuff of the world—teachers—dedicate themselves afresh to the mighty task of rebuilding the national institutions as an expression of the highest ideal of humanity."

Americans of every section, of every class, and of every race have answered the call of their country.

"Twelve million colored people have rallied to the defense of their country in this crisis, and will do their full share in helping to win

this world war for democracy," Dr. Robert R. Moton, principal of Tuskegee Institute, successor to Booker T. Washington in that office, said recently in an address at the Twenty-seventh Tuskegee Conference.

"The colored American citizens will do their part in producing foodstuff on the farm, in conserving food in the home, and in fighting in the trenches in Europe, and in addition the colored ministry and the colored teachers will preach and teach thrift among their race."

It has been impossible to obtain figures on the amount of Liberty Loan bonds purchased by colored Americans in the first and second loans, but it is known that according to their means and ability the colored race were very loyal and active and most liberal subscribers to the loans.

The value of farm products of the United States for the year 1917 reach the tremendous and unprecedented sum of $19,443,849,000, an increase of more than six billion over the values of 1916 and almost nine billion more than 1915.

The Department of Agricalture has just issued a preliminary estimate for last year showing crop values of $13,610,463,000, representing 70 per cent. of the value of all farm products for the year, and $5,833,386,000, the value of animals and animal products of our farms.

By permission, at our request, we reprint the following terse and patriotic statement of the relation of the schools to the conditions created by the war. The author is Mr. C. H. Thurber of Ginn and Company.

"When will this war be won? To that question, often on our lips and always in our hearts, a distinguished Englishman has answered, 'In 1935.' That means, of course, that after the tumult and the shouting die, after the sacrifices have been offered on the altar of Moloch, this war will really be won by the nations that emerge from the conflict with the best assets in men and women. And these men and women are the boys and girls now in our schools.

Our country entered this world conflict with clean hands and a pure heart, if ever a nation so entered upon a war. The immediate task before us is to prevent the triumph by force of a type of government and a theory of life in which we do not believe. We are addressing ourselves loyally, unflinchingly, to this stupendous, all-engrossing task. We believe that it is of supreme importance to the future of

mankind that this task be well and thoroughly accomplished, that the result will be more than worth the staggering cost.

In the background, nurturing the great reserves of humanity on which the future must be built, stand the schools, never so important, never so indispensable as now. The biggest of all conservation projects, the conservation of our boys and girls, has, in the main, been turned over to the schools. The responsibility thus placed upon them would be appalling if it were not so tremendously inspiring. It challenges every man and woman engaged in school work to higher endeavor; it forces them to draw on hitherto unknown reservoirs of enthusiasm and of strength; it brightens ideals that had been dulled by routine and it sets up new ideals of surpassing splendor. Never in the world's history could a man or woman say with nobler pride, 'I am a teacher.'"

Plans for the celebration of Children's Year, of which the saving of 100,000 lives is one feature, are being developed by the Children's Bureau in cooperation with the Child-Welfare Department of the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense. The safeguarding and protection of children is looked upon as a patriotic duty in view of the unavoidable wastage of human life incident to war. It is expected that the 5,000 or more local committees of the Child-Welfare Department of the Woman's Committee will be able to carry the campaign to every community in the United States. This is looked upon as essential to the success of the movement, for in the last analysis, every community must save its own babies if they are to be saved at all. State and Federal agencies, either official or voluntary, can make plans and offer suggestions but each community must bear its full share of responsibility in making the campaign a success.

Foreign Notes

PRESENT EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS ABROAD.—"The damage to the educational systems of the warring countries has been merely material and quantitative," declares W. S. Jesien in his annual review of foreign education in the 1917 Report of the Commissioner of Education, just issued.

"School buildings have been destroyed or commandeered; teachers have been drafted; universities and higher schools have lost in some instances as much as 75 per cent. of their regular enrollment; war industries have claimed thousands of older boys whose education has thus been disturbed or postponed, if not prematurely ended. But interest in public education has nowhere been weakened, nor have standards of instruction been lowered. On the contrary, Europe has never been so alive to the supreme social importance of education as in this time when all established social institutions are being tested as by fire."

ENGLISH SCHOOLMEN FIGHTING FOR EDUCATION.—The school people of England are having to combat the same type of ignorance in comparatively high circles regarding the function of the schools that all the warring nations are contending with to a greater or less degree. Mr. A. L. Smith, master of Balliol, recently spoke vigorously against the "lowering of the school-leaving age" in war-time, characterizing this as one of the most dangerous of the many shortsighted proposals being put forward. He expressed the hope that the country would not tolerate "surrendering the young life of the nation to the factories and coal mines as a means of paying for the war."

A similar plea has been made by Mr. J. L. Paton, high master of Manchester Grammar School, who warns his public against the inclination to regard education as a luxury, to be surrendered in war-time, along with other luxuries. He reminds the country that "The efficiency we have encountered in our enemies in the present war is due to education, and if we are to become more efficient than Germany after the war we shall have to provide a larger and more comprehensive educational system."

It is worth noting in this connection that Mr. Fisher, in introducing the new Education Bill in the House of Commons, spoke with concern of the "600,000 children withdrawn prematurely from school" to engage in industrial work—in field, shop, and mine.

ATTENDANCE IN LONDON SCHOOLS.—The report of the Accommodation and Attendance Sub-Committee for 1916-17 shows that the percentage of attendance to numbers on the roll was 87.6 for the year, as compared with 89.4 in the last complete year before the war. This means, according to *The Schoolmaster*, that 89,300 children were absent every time the schools were open. The same journal is convinced that figures for the current year will show much more serious conditions. It also points out that many schools have been taken as hospitals, and the children are receiving only half-time education; that, as a result of the air raids, children are suffering from want of sleep, and are correspondingly "less keen" in the classroom; and that opportunities for employment out of school hours, as well as for premature school-leaving, are operating to reduce the efficiency of the schools still further. Under present conditions only eight or nine thousand children over 14 are remaining in school, says *The Schoolmaster*; "the desire to stay for a better education has given place to the desire to leave at the earliest possible moment."

SECONDARY SCHOOL PROBLEMS.—Reorganization of secondary education with special reference to courses of study, is as live a subject in most foreign countries as in the United States. Two interesting English reports are reviewed by Professor Walter Ripman in the December *School World* (London). One is the report of the Committee on the Neglect of Science; the other that of the Council for Humanistic Studies, published under the title "Education, Scientific and Humane."

The two reports constitute an attempt of the scientists and humanists to get together on principles of secondary education; Professor Ripman's article is an attempt to reduce the discussion to the much more practical basis of time allotments. "Leave the specialists to formulate their demands in periods per week, without regard to the curriculum as a whole," says Professor Ripman, "add up the periods they require, and the aggregate will amount to fifty periods a week. The actual school week contains from 30 to 36 periods. You cannot pour three pints into a quart pot." The only two associations that made tangible statements on time-allotments to the committee were the Historical Association, which demanded that three periods a week be assigned to history, and the Modern Language Association, which expressed the opinion that not fewer than five periods a week should be given to a modern language in the first two years, and four periods after that. The Classical Associations considered it a grave mistake to bind educational authorities to a fixed allotment of school hours; likewise the Geographical Association.

The plan of the Committee on Neglect of Science provided as follows: English and history, 9 periods; languages other than English, 9; mathematics, 6; natural science, including geography, 9; artistic and manual training, 1. Professor Ripman points out that, assuming the committee had in view the years twelve to sixteen, this is not essentially different from the plan of the committee on curricula of the Education Reform Council, as published in "Education Reform."

"Conscientious Objectors" in English Schools.—Speaking to a motion in the English House of Lords on November 28th to prohibit conscientious objectors from teaching "in any school or college supported or assisted by the public funds," Lord Gainsford opposed any interference by the State with the liberty of thought of the teachers. The Marquess of Crewe conceded that the "conscientious objector was regarded as a blackleg, and the way of the blackleg was always hard," but he felt that it would be altogether impossible to dismiss from the teaching service some conscientious objectors, such as Quakers and others, who had done good work. Viscount Sandhurst hoped the resolution would not be pressed. "Taken as a whole," he said, "no body of men have shown themselves more ready to assist the country or have shown more patriotism than the vast body of teachers." On the Government's assurance that there was no intention of giving further indulgence or extending the scope of exemption to conscientious objectors, Lord Charmwood, who had made the motion, withdrew it.

The same question came up in the House of Commons when Mr. W. Johnson Hicks (Brentford) asked Mr. Herbert Fisher, President of the Board of Education, whether "now that this House has directed that conscientious objectors should be disfranchised, he would issue an order preventing them from acting as teachers in elementary and secondary schools, where they have far more opportunities for evil than in any other position?" Mr. Fisher's reply was: "I have no authority to issue any such order."

A New Book on Prussian Elementary Schools.—American writers who have in the past paid deserved tribute to the thoroughness of the elementary school system of Prussia are hastening to explain that they "knew all the time" what was the matter with it. It is only fair to Dr. Thomas Alexander, whose "Prussian Elementary Schools" has just appeared,[1] as one of the text-book series edited by Paul Monroe, to say that the schoolman who is interested in a discriminating study of Prussian schools by a man who knows both his own nation

[1] Macmillan, 1918.

and the foreign country, will find the good things and the bad things presented sanely and squarely.

Professor Alexander's study was made a year and a half before the outbreak of the Great War. There has been little attempt to draw conclusions, he says in his preface, but he adds: "We believe that a careful study of the Prussian school system will convince any unbiased reader that . . . . the whole scheme of Prussian elementary education is shaped with the express purpose of making ninety-five out of every hundred citizens subservient to the ruling house and to the State." And again: "There are many excellent features of the Prussian school system; there are many things which we could do well to study carefully. The Prussian King's conception of education for the lower classes, however, is directly opposed to everything American."

In a particularly interesting concluding chapter, Professor Alexander summarizes German national aims as affecting elementary education, and urges that Americans should formulate a definite goal in keeping with democratic principles. He points out the lessons to be learned from Prussia—that the excellence of schools stands in direct ratio to the efficiency and preparedness of the teaching body; that Prussian elementary teachers are better paid than American teachers; that requirements for country teachers are as high as for city teachers; that the unit of school administration in Prussia is pre-eminently more satisfactory than the traditional American district system; and that Prussia excells the United States in school statistics and in school attendance; but that through the moral and historical subjects in the curriculum the Prussian people have been led into a "spiritual captivity."

W. C. R.

Book Notices

THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION. By William T. Whitney, Pd. D., Ph. D., Superintendent of Schools, Port Chester, N. Y. A. S. Barnes Company. Price 60 cents.

This little book should be owned and read by every teacher in the United States. From the standpoint of efficiency it would be a good investment for any school board to appropriate money to put a copy into the hands of every teacher employed by such board. It is of convenient size to slip into a man's side coat pocket or into a woman's small hand bag. But any male or female teacher who thus carries it will not leave it there for long at a time. It will prove to be more than a *vade mecum*. It will become a familiar friend and its wise, sympathetic counsel will be a continual inspiration. It will make for good teaching. After some forty or more pages of most discriminating and inspired teaching about the recitation, its nature, purpose and method, more than as many pages are given to actual model lessons, with the appropriate "*dramatis personae*" as the participants. There are such simple recitation lessons on history, spelling, reading and geography,—for several different grades. The statement is made that teachers use twenty-one words in conducting a recitation to one word used by the pupil. The use of this book will help to correct and to reverse these figures. The children will learn to love, not dread the recitation period. They will acquire a mastery of English and a power to think that will revolutionize school work, when the principles laid down in this little volume are adopted and applied.

F. H. P.

A THEOLOGY FOR THE SOCIAL GOSPEL. By Walter Rauschenbusch. Macmillan Company. Price $1.50.

We trust that every clergyman and every intelligent, active layman in all denominations will possess himself of this vitalizing volume and carefully peruse its pages and absorb its spirit. It reflects a very real movement that is fraught with influences that are of the utmost consequence to the future of our nation and also of the human race. It reveals the dynamic power behind the on-coming democratization of the peoples of the world. Theology, good or bad, has always lain behind great human movements. It is behind the present movement; and it is the theology of Jesus,—so often misconceived and misinterpreted and misapplied. Man's thought of God has been deeply tinged by his own environment. His fear of the King, or other kinds of rulers, has made him afraid of God,—has made fear a part of his religion. This has made his God an arbitrary God, favoring whom he will and damning whom he

chooses. It has created a monarchical priesthood, and left "the naked unclothed," and "the hungry unfed." Theology has dealt largely with subjective experiences in each individual. It has turned the gaze inward to self rather than outward to the needs of others. It has been impressive, not expressive. It has required a certain experience of conviction of sin, repentance, acceptance of conditions of salvation, and a self-consciousness of regeneration. But now the social gospel seeks to reverse this. It turns the gaze outward. It becomes expressive. It asks what can we do for others? How can we minister to the needs of all men and make love the atmosphere of men's lives. How can we democratize the world and make every man conscious of the love of God and of his own divine sonship? Professor Rauschenbusch takes us straight back to Jesus, over the wastes of barren, mediaeval theology, and shows us the distinctively social theology of the Saviour. He says that the worst crime of theology has been to "leave men under a despotic conception of God and the universe; and what will the Son of Man do to us theologians when we gather at the Day of Doom? Here we see one of the highest redemptive services of Jesus to the human race. When he took God by the hand and called him 'Our Father,' he democratized the conception of God. He disconnected the idea from the coercive and predatory state and transferred it to the realm of family life, the chief embodiment of solidarity and love. He not only saved humanity; he saved God. He gave God his first chance of being loved and of escaping from the worst misunderstandings conceivable. The value of Christ's idea of the Fatherhood of God is realized only by contrast to the despotic ideas which it opposed and was meant to displace. We have classified theology as Greek, as Latin, as Catholic and Protestant. It is time to classify it as despotic and democratic. From a Christian point of view that is a more decisive distinction."

This is a wonderful book. Its author is a clear thinker, a lover of people, sympathetic toward all forms of common experience, and having a power of expression that makes it possible for him to put into words the inner longings and convictions that many have, but are unable to express for themselves. His argument in this volume relates itself closely to the great movement for universal democracy that is revealing itself as the underlying cause of the present world war. F. H. P.

THE FOREIGN POLICY OF WOODROW WILSON. 1913-1917. By Edgar E. Robinson and Victor J. West, Assistant Professors in Leland Stanford University, California. Macmillan Company. Price $1.75.

Whatever may be the verdict of the future upon the policies of the present administration in the United States, it is well to have a carefully studied statement made at close range, of and concerning the official utterances from Washington that have so largely shaped as well as expressed those policies. This volume will be thoughtfully read by many

present-day students of contemporary affairs in this crisis of the world's history. The record will be useful as a supplementary or as a main text book, in history and political economy classes in schools and colleges, and it will be authoritative as a source of information for future generations. The authors have appended a "carefully selected chronology of the significant events of American foreign relations." The book will contribute its "mite" toward marking the administration of President Wilson as one of the most important in the history of the country and of the entire world.

RURAL ARITHMETIC. By Augustus O. Thomas, Ph. D., State Superintendent of Public Instruction for Nebraska. American Book Company. Price 68 cents.

This book is an important step in the right direction. It will make arithmetic interesting and easy for the pupils in the rural districts because it applies the fundamental principles of arithmetic to the things with which the country child is familiar. There are all sorts of practical problems covering such topics as building, insuring, household economy and accounting, taxation, surveying, heat, water, light, etc. This book will promote love for country life as the student works out problems of profit and loss in poultry keeping, sheep raising, dairy productions, farm crops, etc. It is illustrated with many fine cuts showing typical farming operations, scenes, and live stock.

FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH FOR FOREIGNERS IN EVENING SCHOOLS. By Frederick Houghton, Sc. M., Principal of Public School Number 7, Buffalo, N. Y. American Book Company. Price 40 cents.

The problem of Americanizing foreigners is one of our greatest problems. This book will help materially in its proper solution. In addition to teaching adult foreigners how to speak, read, and write English it teaches them essentials of spelling, letter-writing, geography, history, civics, and gives information about money, checks, wages and customs of our people, in short it gives them touch with their new life in a new world. The vocabulary of the chapters is carefully chosen to give familiarity with the most common words. A Second Book in English for Foreigners, carries the work forward to a larger command of things American.

AFRICAN MISSIONARY HEROES AND HEROINES. By H. K. W. Kumm. The Macmillan Company. Price $1.25.

Reader, did you know that Africa is as large as the United States, plus the whole of Europe, plus the whole of India, plus the whole of China, and with additional room to tuck away a dozen Japans in the corners? Did you know that it is five thousand miles across and five

thousand miles long? Do you realize that it is by far the richest of the five continents? That it has about one hundred and fifty millions of inhabitants and is capable of supporting a thousand million? That between the Niger and the Nile (a distance of 1,500 miles) no Christian work is being done, and this is the strategic position of the missionary world at this moment? These facts are all stated in this book,—in the Introducton. The Chapters that follow give thrilling tales from the biographies of missionary workers in this great, dark, mysterious, fascinating land. And the author claims that if one were to write "for days, and months, and years" and to "tell tales—innumerable, thrilling—of all these mighty men, whose names you see here (in this book) we should have failed to mention most of Africa's heroes."

COMMUNITY CENTER ACTIVITIES. By Clarence Arthur Perry, Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation. A convenient handbook giving suggestions, programs, etc., for civic and educational occasion. It is in line with a great movement that is sweeping over the country, for social and civic activities, neighborhood service, mental and physical contests, club and society meetings and other social developments. The leaders in such movements will find the volume distinctly useful.

SKETCHES FROM THE LIFE CLASS. By Ningunto Santo. The Nunc Licet Press.

This volume presents some common experiences of humanity, from a practical point of view, showing how the great religious principles underlie them. The book is permeated with the philosophy of Swedenborg. It will cheer the sorrowing and the discouraged souls, and point the way of the tempted so that they will overcome temptation.

GARDEN STEPS. A Manual for the Amateur in Vegetable Gardening. By Ernest Cobb. Silver, Burdett and Company. Price 60 cents.

This is an especially timely volume, in view of the great increase of interest in gardening caused by war conditions. This interest has affected multitudes of people who never dreamed that they would become cultivators of the soil for practical purposes. The interest of the public naturally has affected the schools also; the interest in school-gardening was growing, anyway, without this added stimulus; but the food question has lately become so serious that the schools have been stimulated to redoubled efforts to train the boys and girls in the best methods and to aid them in producing practical results in both the home and the school gardens. A new book was called for, to give the latest ideas on this very practical branch of learning. And a better book than Mr. Cobb's could hardly be imagined. It is good because it is so simple, so direct, so practical in its presentation of principles and methods that any chld can understand it;

and yet it states what has been tested out by experience by the best scientific students of agriculture. It does not deal in "glittering generalities," on the one hand; nor, on the other, does it use technical terms implying expert training and requiring experience to understand and apply them. It "calls a spade a spade"; it shows the best method of preparing the soil, putting in the seed and cultivating and harvesting the crop when the young agriculturist wants to raise potatoes, or peas, or corn, or carrots, or onions, and so on. There are numerous illustrations that are well drawn and carry each its message. No better book could be found, we are sure, for the amateur gardener or for the school class in gardening, than this dainty and alluring little volume.

THE CHURCH AND THE MAN. By Donald Hankey. The Macmillan Company. Price 60 cents.

It is with a feeling of sadness that one takes up this suggestive little book, which is a sort of memorial volume, since the gifted author has fallen in action. He lived long enough to put his fellow men under a debt of obligation which they will never forget, and the authorship of "A Student in Arms" made him the friend and helper of thoughtful people of all races, and for all time. The present volume further unfolds his virile, sane, contageous faith in the great religious truths and realities of Christian experience. It will be read by thousands with a sorrowing and reverent attention and interest.

THE STORY OF THE LITTLE ANGELS. By Laura Spencer Portor. Harper & Brothers. Price 50 cents, net.

A devotional prose-poem, suggestive, delicate, dainty. A person of a poetic and religious cast of mind will find it inspiring.

ELEMENTARY ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY. By Charles Redway Dryer, F. G. S. A., F. R. G. S. American Book Company. Price $1.28.

For subject-matter, style, illustrative material, completeness of treatment and mechanical excellence this commerce and industry geography leaves little to be desired. Part I treats of Human Economies and their Natural Foundations; Part II of the Economic Geography of the United States. There are chapters upon the territories and dependencies of the United States and upon foreign commerce and the economic work of the government. Essential facts are fully covered. There is a "Summary" and a series of comprehensive "Questions," at the close of each chapter. The volume is usable and interesting in every particular. The illustrations familiarize the reader or student with the various industries and their methods. It will be going far toward the acquirement of a "liberal education" to master this fascinating subject so attractively presented in this book.

The annual number of the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature for 1917 (The H. W. Wilson Co.) is a most useful volume. It spreads before the casual surveyor as complete a bird's-eye view of the year's doings and sayings as could be desired. The trend of public thought and the impress upon it of events is accurately reflected in this array of references to the leading periodicals of the year. Run your finger down the pages—here are eleven articles under "Camouflage" a heading not even mentioned in the 1916 annual number of the Guide. "Canning and preserving" occupies four times as much space as in 1916—"Cost of living" has swelled to twice its former size. Fourteen references under "Gary system" bear witness to the prominence given to this subject by the agitation that took place in New York City last Fall;—on the other hand "Infantile paralysis" has shrunk from one and one-half columns in 1916 to barely half-a-column in 1917. How the European War overshadows all other topics! Here are thirty pages of references to every phase of this vast subject—more than 2,000 entries, martialed for quick reference, under 128 sub-headings. That the reader may not lose his way the classification used is printed in full (p. 128). Other subjects have leaped into prominence over-night and enjoy a popularity never before dreamed of. "Food Conservation," "Bread" and "Coal"—once lightly regarded as commodities——reflect here their newly-acquired importance. Russia requires as many pages of references for the record of its last fateful year as for the five years preceding. Woman—but one could go on indefinitely. Suffice it to say that by aid of this volume the reader will find his way readily to what there is in the magazines about any subject in which the world is interested. "Education" is one of the less than a dozen distinctively educational magazines whose leading articles are presented.

Books acknowledged,—to review which, space has been lacking:

EVERYDAY NUMBER STORIES. By George Baker Longan, Late Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Mo., Emma Serl, Teacher in The Normal Training School, Kansas City, Mo., Florence Elledge, Teacher in the Humboldt School, Kansas City, Mo. World Book Company. List price 40 cents.

COMMENCEMENT DAYS. A Book For Graduates. By Washington Gladden, author of "Live and Learn," etc. The Macmillan Company. Price $1.25.

THE ESSENTIALS OF EFFECTIVE GESTURE. For Students of Public Speaking. By Joseph A. Mosher, A. M., Ph. D., Instructor in Public Speaking, College of the City of New York. The Macmillan Company. Price $1.00.